

THE
SATURDAY REVIEW
OR
POLITICS, LITERATURE, SCIENCE, AND ART.

No. 1,032, Vol. 40.

August 7, 1875.

[Registered for
Transmission abroad.]

Price 6d.

MINISTERS AT THE MANSION HOUSE.

THE review of the Session which Mr. DISRAELI offered to his audience at the Mansion House was in most respects very much what it was sure to be. It is the business of the Prime Minister to say all he can on behalf of himself and his colleagues, to recount their achievements, to glorify their circumstances, and to ascribe their shortcomings to the malice of adversaries or the inherent perversity of the nature of things. All this Mr. DISRAELI did, and it is needless to say that he did it well. By painting his lilies a little whiter, and throwing a discreet cloud over the ugly portions of the landscape, he made a very nice picture for after-dinner admirers. He remitted to discreet silence the Regimental Exchanges Bill, the solitary measure in which he has had to use a Conservative majority to put down a Liberal Opposition. The withdrawal of the Scotch and Irish Judicature Bills was passed over with a natural dislike to recall the painful fact that the CHANCELLOR's one big measure was burked by a knot of Conservative peers. The Ministry have passed some good measures, and the most that could be said of them was said. In touching on the Bills relating to the contracts and crimes of workmen, Mr. DISRAELI even took occasion to go back to his celebrated utterance of last autumn, in which, by an unlucky coincidence, he remarked, at the moment of Count ARNIM's trial, that the people of this country had privileges and blessings denied to the nobles of other countries. He has since explained that he did not mean to refer to Count ARNIM, and that he was only speaking generally; and as an instance of what he really did mean, he now gives these Acts relating to workmen. The English people possess at last what is unhappily denied to foreign noblemen, the right to have most engagements for manual labour treated as civil contracts, criminal responsibility for broken contracts of service limited to reckless interference with the proper distribution of gas and water, and an exemption from the aggravated penalties of conspiracy for the offences of workmen. Mr. DISRAELI omitted to specify what are the countries in which the nobility are suffering under the sad consequences which the want of these privileges must entail. But, as this is the sort of thing he meant, it must be held to be irrefutable that he could not have referred last autumn to Count ARNIM, who, we may be sure, never worked in a gas factory. The Bill for dealing with the National Debt filled him with exultation, as a theme specially adapted to be dilated on in the City. It can be safely viewed in the most rosy colours, as its operation belongs entirely to the future; the very modest provision for reducing the Debt made by the CHANCELLOR of the EXCHEQUER for the present year being liable, as he has just informed the House of Commons, to be absorbed in any deficiency created by supplementary Estimates. Of his own pet measure, the Agricultural Holdings Bill, Mr. DISRAELI confidently predicted that it will elevate and strengthen in all its classes the great landed interest; and this certainly will be a magnificent result, and will show what large things may be done with small means. Altogether Mr. DISRAELI not unreasonably thought he might compare the harvest of the Session with the harvest of the year. We have had bad weather, but still the corn is not wholly spoiled. Hay will be dear, but root crops look beautiful. There is no cause for repining. Farmers need not lose heart, and the country need not lose confidence in Mr. DISRAELI's Ministry. No comparison could be more appo-

site, or express better the real state of things. He and his colleagues have seen some of their hay washed away, and some of it spoilt; but they can point with legitimate pride to a field or two of good promising turnips.

On one topic, however, that of his unfortunate Merchant Shipping Bill, Mr. DISRAELI dilated at considerable length, and went out of his way to justify himself, principally, as it would seem, for the mere fun of the thing, and to show what he could do even with an unpromising subject if he liked. He thought that his dexterity and audacity would be quite sufficient to prove that the great blunder of his Ministry was not a blunder at all. To give up his Merchant Shipping Bill and get a temporary measure passed enabling the Government to do all it wished to do was, he said, exactly what he had been aiming at. By the help of the public he has realized the cherished and secret aspirations of his heart. It is true that when he withdrew the Merchant Shipping Bill he deprecated the introduction of a temporary Bill; but it was a temporary Bill unaided by the gusts of popular feeling—a poor, weak, ineffectual Bill—that he dreaded. In the recesses of his mind he was all the time shaping his own sort of temporary Bill, a wholesome, strong, dictatorial measure. All he wanted was the public to help him to launch such a measure, and he is not the man to rely on the British public in vain. Responding to his unexpressed invitation, leaping at the conclusion to which he desired it to come, it pronounced in a moment with a thrill of passionate rapture in his favour. Out came his secret, strong, temporary measure, and he and the public carried it together. He had been accused of abandoning the Merchant Shipping Bill and taking up the Agricultural Holdings Bill instead. Nothing could be more false. It was obvious to every one that, even if the latter Bill had been dropped, the former Bill could not have been carried. The Merchant Shipping Bill was dead beyond all hope, even if the Agricultural Holdings Bill had not been allowed to live. But then, only a few days before the withdrawal of the Merchant Shipping Bill, Mr. DISRAELI had solemnly announced that the Government intended to carry both Bills, and that nothing could be easier, as the Agricultural Holdings Bill might be got through in one week, and the Merchant Shipping Bill in another. This at first sight looks odd and inconsistent. If the Merchant Shipping Bill could be carried so easily, why was it abandoned? This also Mr. DISRAELI undertook to explain. When he spoke of carrying the Merchant Shipping Bill, he was speaking in the spirit and language of prophecy. His Parliamentary hearers, in their humdrum human way, thought that he was referring to the Merchant Shipping Bill brought in at the beginning of the Session, and over which the House had already spent many weary hours. But it was not so. His real thoughts were far away. He was gazing into the future. It was the strong temporary measure which he and the public were to carry together that loomed in vague but grand proportions before his rapt vision. This was the Merchant Shipping Bill which was fated to be carried; and in a trance he saw the whole thing—the aberration of Mr. PLIM-SOLL, the excitement of the nation, the easy grace with which the Ministry would propose its temporary Bill, and carry it after it had been largely altered in Committee. As he put it in his grandest style, it was "a prophecy, not a mistake." It is strange to think that there is something even more extraordinary than this prophecy, and that is, that Mr. DISRAELI can offer such an explanation and not be in the

least harmed by it. It will be merely regarded as one of those flights of fancy which advantageously separate him from other men, and give interest and lustre to his curious career. Possibly there may be two men in England who will accept the explanation as an accurate record of facts; but there will certainly be two millions who will enjoy the fun of it, and will be grateful to him for amusing them by giving it.

Even when he concedes that he has not done this Session all that he could have wished, Mr. DISRAELI asks that it should be observed with what extraordinary difficulties he has had to contend. Never was a Minister bothered with so dreadful an Opposition. When he has pacified the Whigs, up jump the Radicals, and when he has triumphed over them, a reserve of Home Rulers forces him into a third contest. There is some truth in this. If all the members of the Opposition thought alike and acted together, it would be easier to deal with them. But in real life Mr. DISRAELI has not had much to complain of in the way of opposition. He himself allows that it was natural and right in the Irish members to try every means in their power to throw obstacles in the way of a measure by which Ireland was to be subjected to the continued pressure of coercion laws. Lord HARTINGTON did all he could to facilitate the progress of the Peace Preservation Act; and to the general measures of the Government the Home Rulers, as such, have offered no opposition. Only one Bill during the Session has been made a party question; and that was a Bill which was transparently at variance with the policy of Mr. DISRAELI's predecessors, and the Opposition did no more than try to uphold the policy which they had maintained successfully in office. Many of the social measures of the Government passed without more opposition than was necessary to elicit what the Government meant. To others there were numerous amendments. But in regard to measures which touch the pockets and interests of special classes this must always be the case. Many of the amendments proposed by the Opposition were accepted by the Government, and thus the Opposition only helped the Government to make its own Bills better. Many, too, of the amendments, and many of the longest speeches in support of amendments, have come from friends of the Ministry; and Lord DERBY was hitting quite as near the real evil as Mr. DISRAELI when, a short time ago, instead of complaining of the Opposition, he recommended Conservatives who wished to help the Government to hold their tongues. It is difficult to see how, if there is to be an Opposition at all, it could have done much less than it has done this Session. For what it has failed to do, as for what it has done, the Ministry has mainly to thank itself.

FOREIGN LOANS AND BRITISH DUPES.

IT is not too high a compliment to Mr. LOWE and his colleagues to say that the members of the Foreign Loans Committee, or those of them who composed the Report, are the legitimate successors of BALZAC. Truth is for once as amusing as fiction, if only the reader forgets for a time that the victims and the villains of the piece are not imaginary characters. BALZAC's speculators and German bankers, reproduced in novel after novel, gave an almost irresistible impression of vitality. The principal personages of the Foreign Loans melodrama almost seem to be fabulous representatives of ideal rascality. Whether the precedent of appointing Committees to compose didactic and descriptive lucubrations ought to be followed is a question which the House of Commons will do well to consider. But in the present instance the merit of the performance supersedes all doubts of the expediency of the inquiry; and Sir HENRY JAMES may congratulate himself on having caused the discovery and publication of knowledge which ought to prove valuable. The passionate desire of poor clergymen, single ladies, and other minute capitalists for precarious investments, though it will not be abated, may perhaps for the present be diverted from loans issued by Honduras and San Domingo. As a speech in the House is redeemed from the charge of being out of order when it concludes with a motion, the copious Report of the Committee ends with the practical recommendation that drawings of loans should be made illegal as partaking of the nature of a lottery. It would have been possible to arrive

at the conclusion independently of the evidence, but the suggestion seems in itself unobjectionable. Another result of the investigation would be within the province of the Foreign Office. Lord DERBY may perhaps think fit to inform the Governments of Honduras and Costa Rica that they must dispense with the diplomatic services in London of their present representative. The duties of his office probably consist exclusively in borrowing money; and as the amount of the various Honduras loans exceeds the value of the fee-simple of the Republic, even Don CARLOS GUTIERREZ can scarcely expect to raise any further contributions in England. It is not seemly that a person who has incurred the comments on his conduct which are contained in the Report should be allowed the immunities and privileges of the diplomatic body. It will be quite unnecessary that the Government of Honduras should be in any hurry to supply the vacancy.

The elaborate machinery of finance which has been described by the Committee may, by means of attentive study, be comprehended in its details, but scarcely in all the motives of the operators. Their general purpose of cheating genuine borrowers, and of taking every possible advantage of one another, is perfectly intelligible; but when all attainable subscriptions have been procured on the Stock Exchange, the process of repurchasing stock seems to be wasteful and rash. No amount of nominal stock has any real value except the cash price which it fetches in the market; and there seems to have been a stage in all the transactions recounted in the Report when a profit must have been realized which was afterwards sacrificed or reduced. The explanation is probably to be found in the greediness of the several confederates who grudged each other a share in the plunder. It is satisfactory to find that a large portion of the Honduras scrip is still in the possession of the various agents. That it should lately have been quoted at even a nominal price is another insoluble mystery. It may be assumed that financiers who deal with Honduras loans understand their own disreputable business. There were evidently, after all deductions, large profits to be made, and even the crumbs of the banquet were nutritious and abundant. The clerk of the attorney who draws up the innumerable agreements which form part of the operations has the chance of receiving, while the bubble floats, four or five thousand a year as a trustee, without giving up his place in the office. The least exacting of all the partners in the speculation is the borrowing Government. Out of loans amounting to six and a half millions the Republic of Honduras received less than 100,000*l.* It is true that whatever amount was obtained might be considered as clear gain, inasmuch as the State never paid nor intended to pay any portion of the debt; but as the whole superstructure required as a foundation the credit of the Republic, it is surprising that the Government did not charge a higher price for the use of its name. The French, or, according to the modern dialect, the International financier with judiciary antecedents ostensibly gained nearly a million. The Committee not unreasonably express a suspicion that the favourite of fortune may have incurred liabilities to his associates which they have not been able to trace.

The credulity of investors and the success of financiers suggested two audacious experiments which happily failed in whole or in part. The Honduras Government or its agents were so profoundly impressed with the fatuity of the nation which they had already fleeced, that in 1871 they proposed to borrow 15,000,000*l.* for a railway which was to carry ships with their cargoes across from the Atlantic to the Pacific. In the prospectus the English tonnage round Cape Horn was stated at 16,000,000, while the real amount as corrected by the *Economist* was 1,700,000. Having by this time grown careless with success, Don CARLOS GUTIERREZ and his associates did not even take the trouble to insert in their prospectus the name of any banker or contractor. The omission, and perhaps the extravagance of their demand, were fatal to their latest venture; and the Honduras Minister soon afterwards withdrew the prospectus, but not before considerable quantities of scrip had been sold in the market. In answer to inquiries from bondholders of the former issue whether funds would be forthcoming to pay the interest and sinking fund, letters were written from the Honduras Legation, under the official stamp, with affirmative answers. The Minister afterwards repudiated the signatures which had been made in his name; but he has no thought

fit to explain either his own omission to answer the inquiries or the origin of the spurious answers. The ship railway, which was as feasible as a railway to the moon, appears, if the statement of the Honduras Legation is accurate, to have originated in the ingenuity of the solicitor who had managed the legal department of the loans. "The legal adviser of the firm of BISCHOFFSHEIM affirmed that it was an absolute necessity, and the only means of obtaining a good result, to propose to the public the conversion of the line into a ship railway, and to solicit as a loan the sum necessary for it." The statements of the writer employed by the Honduras Legation are not to be accepted as true, and it is possible that the solicitor may be innocent of the proposal; but it is evident that the object of the ship railway was not to carry ships or cargoes, but to float a loan. As a last resort, Don CARLOS GUTIERREZ sent Captain BEDFORD PIM to Paris to try to raise a loan of 2,000,000. On the application of the Honduras Minister at Paris, the English agent was apprehended by the police; and, although he was soon released, no further attempt was made on French credulity.

As Costa Rica shares with Honduras the inestimable services of Don CARLOS GUTIERREZ, its loan was contracted on the same principles and with similar results, except that the Government of Costa Rica received half a million of the proceeds before it repudiated the debt. The manager of the San Domingo loan, who was also Consul-General for the Republic, admits that he retained for the purpose of investment in his private business a large balance which remained from the loan. The Senate of San Domingo in due course repudiated the loan. The Republic of Paraguay, content with not providing for interest or sinking fund, has hitherto dispensed with the formality of repudiation. Although the transactions recorded by the Committee vary in detail, they have all a common element. Not one of the petty States has ever paid or thought of paying a single shilling of principal or interest on the loans; nor is there reason to suppose that any person concerned, except the innocent purchasers in the market, at any time believed that either the credit of the Governments or the property which was supposed to be mortgaged had any substantial value. Payments of interest and fragmentary payments of principal were, with the complicity of the agents, provided out of the loans themselves, in full knowledge that when the fund provided by the purchasers was exhausted, their securities would become absolutely worthless. Those who negotiated the loan cannot have expected any return from the receipts of Custom-houses or from the proceeds of mines or forests, which, if they were not already mortgaged, must have been required to meet the expenses of administration. At one time, when a new loan was about to be launched, two or three cargoes of mahogany were consigned to the contractors in England, in apparent discharge, to the amount of their value, of the liabilities of Honduras. The goods had in fact been purchased from private dealers by members of the Government, who paid the price in bills which by a strange coincidence were afterwards found in the hands of the contractor for the loan in England. It is probable that members of syndicates and financiers who deal with loans to insolvent States have long since ceased to understand the moral character and effect of their own operations. Amongst themselves they are playing a game of skill, in which it matters nothing to the rest of the community whether they win or lose; but the whole of their stakes have been provided by the employment of loaded dice. The purchasers of depreciated stocks are for the most part poor, and uniformly ignorant. The temptation of increasing an insufficient income is irresistible, and unfortunately brokers are to be found who habitually abuse the confidence of their clients by recommending to them unsound investments on which they themselves receive a bonus. The researches of the Committee, though they are entertaining to disinterested students, produce the unpleasant effect which always results from narratives of fraud. The *History of Ferdinand, Count Fathom*, and the *Adventures of Barry Lyndon* have never been really popular. In the absence of possible sympathy, the biographies of Mr. LEFEVRE and his associates, though they are amusing, produce a melancholy reaction. The forcible warnings of the Report will too probably have no permanent result. The late Bishop of ST. DAVID'S once wrote to a friend who was temporarily occupying his house to say that he had thought of warning him against an ill-tempered dog; but, he added, "the caution would have been useless, because 'he will certainly bite you whether you take care or not.'"

The successors of the negotiators of the Honduras loan will not less certainly bite the successors of the unfortunate holders of the stock.

THE O'CONNELL CENTENARY.

IF centenaries are worth observing, the hundredth anniversary of O'CONNELL's birth may naturally be celebrated by his admirers. It would be absurd to dispute his ability or to underrate his achievements. The admission of Roman Catholics to Parliament might probably have been postponed if the Government had not been alarmed by the formidable agitation which he organized. Some years later Mr. COBDEN obtained a similar success on a smaller scale. The Corn Law League was copied from the Catholic Association, but Mr. COBDEN had the merit of appealing to the reason as well as to the fears of his opponents. It was scarcely the fault of O'CONNELL that he contributed little to the controversy except its practical conclusion. The folly and injustice of excluding the Roman Catholics had been demonstrated by a long succession of orators, and it had been admitted by nearly all the statesmen of one or two generations. PITT, FOX, GRENVILLE, GREY, PLUNKETT, CASTLEREAGH, and CANNING were supporters of the Catholic claims, while the only authoritative advocates of exclusion were LIVERPOOL and PEEL. The Duke of WELLINGTON, who long opposed and ultimately conceded emancipation, had always disclaimed any conscientious objection to the principles which he regarded as subordinate to considerations of political convenience. O'CONNELL's eloquence was addressed, not to prejudiced Protestants, nor even to hesitating statesmen. He spoke directly to the great mass of his countrymen with a power which no other popular leader has attained. In the Catholic clergy he found the most effective of local agents, and with their aid and by his own eloquence, directed by a sympathetic knowledge of the national character, he wielded absolute power over the peasantry. They would have rebelled at his bidding, and they obeyed him when he told them only to threaten rebellion. His declamation excited all their passions, and they were sufficiently quick-witted to appreciate his broad and abundant humour. They were even proud of his reputed astuteness in using and evading the law. If one of his formidable Associations was dissolved, he immediately revived the same organization under another name, and law and legislation were too slow to overtake his versatile ingenuity. During his prime no competitor attempted with success to promote any independent agitation. He and his followers would have made short work of little religious or political factions which might have anticipated the squabble of the Fenians with the policy of the Centenary Committee. It was only when O'CONNELL was broken with years and cowed by legal prosecution that the MITCHELLS, the MEAGHERS, and the O'BRIENS attempted to realize the rebellion which he had all his life held out as a threat.

The principal objection to a celebration of O'CONNELL's memory is that he has no surviving adherents. Since his time political issues have assumed another form; and the Roman Catholic hierarchy has adopted or proclaimed a system which he could never have foreseen. It is impossible to know what he would have thought of the Immaculate Conception or of the infallibility of the Pope; but it is not improbable that he would have passively acquiesced in both doctrines as mysteries with which laymen had no concern. He would certainly not have approved the secular policy of the Jesuits, which has brought the Holy See into relations of hostility with nearly every State in Europe. With O'CONNELL's connivance and approval, and probably in accordance with his sincere opinion, the Irish Catholic prelates of his day disclaimed for the satisfaction of Parliament all the most obnoxious theories which have since been propounded in the Syllabus and in the Vatican Decrees. Much of his success was due to his close alliance with the priests; but, although they might be indispensable to him as agents and auxiliaries, they were the subordinates, and he was the undisputed chief. His orthodoxy according to the good old type of hereditary Catholicism was undisputed; but there is no reason to suppose that he ever troubled himself with the study of theology. He can scarcely have believed in the subordination of the State to the Church, which had not been seriously claimed for three centuries. Irish Catholics were in his time only too glad to be admitted to equality

with their countrymen, on the assumption that in all secular matters they were absolutely independent. In modern times the upper classes chafe against the dictation of the priests, who employ all their remaining influence over the peasantry for the promotion of the interests of their sect. Demagogues are no longer necessarily zealous Catholics ; and the clergy have been reduced to absolute submission to Rome. Neither the party which would use Irish Parliamentary influence for the promotion of an Ultramontane policy in Europe, nor the supporters of Home Rule or of an Irish Republic of the American kind, can rightfully claim to be the representatives of O'CONNELL. It is an absurd anachronism to identify his name with the modern school of political Popery.

The clerical faction which is bent on regarding O'CONNELL as an exclusively ecclesiastical hero has the merit of prior invention. Cardinal CULLEN or his dependents were the first to discover that the O'CONNELL Centenary might be adapted to controversial uses. Their first notion seems to have been a gathering of Catholic dignitaries from home and from abroad for the purpose of protesting against recent Prussian legislation. There was but a slight connexion between O'CONNELL's opposition to ELDOX and the Orangemen, and the opposition of the German bishops to BISMARCK ; but there would be a pleasure, if not an advantage, in reminding the Government of Berlin of the triumph of the Catholic Association. When the meeting of prelates and divines had been already arranged, the Lord Mayor of DUBLIN, as a zealous Catholic, naturally resolved to invite them to dinner ; and at the same time he proposed to extend his hospitality to laymen who might be inclined to honour the memory of O'CONNELL. He considerably announced that the health of the POPE would be proposed before the health of the QUEEN. As he has since explained, the festivity was primarily ecclesiastical, and the Catholic clergy in modern times ostentatiously proclaim in the first place their spiritual allegiance, though they afterwards condescend to recognize the temporal sovereign of the country. Those of the laity who may be honoured by admission to a clerical banquet must conform themselves to the customs of the privileged guests. The profound ignorance of English, if not of human, nature which distinguishes the Romish priesthood fully explains their obstinate maintenance of an offensive practice. A Lord Mayor who asks a Cardinal to dinner has probably no choice between a refusal of his invitation and an affront to the Crown. The Lord Mayor of DUBLIN appears to have been fair and straightforward in his conduct, but he adopted an awkward method of commemorating the services of O'CONNELL. No Protestant could attend the dinner without incurring the imputation either of disloyalty or of extreme bad taste. If O'CONNELL had meditated on the conditions of posthumous fame, he would scarcely have wished to be remembered as the promoter of an irreconcilable schism between Protestants and Catholics. The prelates and priests who have accepted invitations to the dinner are the avowed champions of the doctrines which the Anti-Catholics of fifty years ago attributed, in spite of O'CONNELL's denial, to the Romish clergy of their day.

As might have been expected, all the demagogues and disaffected factions have determined to claim their share in the celebration of the Centenary ; and, on the whole, their title is better than that of the Ultramontane party. Apart from his personal convictions, which may probably have been genuine, O'CONNELL in his public career was essentially an agitator, and only incidentally a professed religious zealot. He resembled GAMBIETTA much more nearly than he resembled Mgr. DUPANLOUP. Home Rule is indistinguishable from Repeal of the Union, which had no direct connexion with the Roman Catholic Church. Cardinal MANNING, in declining an invitation to the dinner, states that, if he had been present, he would have dilated on O'CONNELL's services to religion ; but O'CONNELL's mantle fell rather on Mr. COBDEN and Mr. BRIGHT than on Cardinal MANNING. The deliberate or involuntary confusion which leads zealous Catholics to revere the memory of O'CONNELL is perfectly intelligible. His foibles of mendacity, scurrility, and readiness to tamper with sedition are not vices which are regarded with harsh intolerance at Rome. Englishmen have never been able, while they appreciated O'CONNELL's genius, to respect a man who never respected himself or others, and who in his public capacity seldom told the truth. Sectarian heroes are independent of the vulgar restraints of morality. It is unnecessary for clerical eulogists to dwell

on the defects of O'CONNELL's character. As Protectionists and Anti-Catholics formerly drank the memory of PITT, Ultramontanes cannot be prevented from recognizing in O'CONNELL a great champion of their cause. It is true that he loudly professed the doctrines which have since been anathematized by PIUS IX., but it cannot be denied that, in elevating the condition of the Catholic laity, he increased the power of the clergy. In his own time he never commanded the confidence of Englishmen of his own persuasion. A Catholic layman not long since quoted with sympathy the answer of one of his own order to a Liberal friend who reproached him with indifference to the struggle for emancipation. He waited till his chaplain left the room before he replied, "That man is now my 'servant ; I don't want him to become my master.' " As far as O'CONNELL contributed to such results, Cardinal CULLEN and Mgr. DUPANLOUP are consistent in doing honour to his memory. The Fenians and the Home Rulers regard O'CONNELL's career with regretful and envious admiration. No mimicry of his violence, no flattery of the prejudices of the peasantry, has hitherto conferred on his imitators the power which he once wielded without dispute. Mr. BUTT, even if he inherited O'CONNELL's genius, will never succeed by the most eager overtures in having the priests at his back. The Catholic gentry dislike both priests and Home Rulers ; and the Protestant population is persistently loyal. With protests uttered in Dublin against the policy of the Prussian Government neither England nor Ireland has any concern.

THE ASSEMBLY AND THE LEFT CENTRE.

THE French Assembly has separated for the holidays, and has seemingly been anxious to show how easily it could have separated for the elections had it been so minded. A very little more of the energy which has cleared the Order-book for the present would have sufficed to dispose of the few necessary Bills which stand over for consideration in November. When the deputies want to get away to amuse themselves, they display an admirable eagerness to waste no time. It is only when they are asked to make room for a body of genuine representatives that they find speed alike impossible and unpatriotic. The most important of the closing sittings was taken up with the third reading of the Senate Bill. The completion of the Republican Constitution was carried by 559 votes against 37. The irreconcilable minority was made up of Legitimists, a few Bonapartists, and a few Radicals. The majority includes all those various sections of opinion which are prepared to acquiesce in the Republic as it is, provided that they can get nothing more to their liking. The sole articulate opponent of the Bill at this stage was M. DE FRANCLIEU, who painted a gloomy picture of the endless constitutional conflicts to which Republican France is doomed. He respects the law, it seems, while it remains the law, but that which a majority has made another majority may destroy. The new Constitution contains no element superior alike to the Executive and to the electors, and for this reason it can never be anything more than a truce between political parties. It would take a very sanguine Frenchman to dispute the probable truth of M. DE FRANCLIEU's predictions, but the members of the majority may find some comfort in the reflection that Constitutions which did contain an element superior alike to the Executive and the electors have of late years been no more permanent than those which are destitute of this controlling principle.

The most notable event of the week has been the speech of M. LABOULAYE at the meeting of the deputies of the Left Centre. The union between this and the other two sections of the Left is still unshaken, and the more decided members of the party have yielded to the moderate members by consenting not to provoke any discussion on the date of the elections until after the recess. M. LABOULAYE's address is thus invested with unusual significance. It is the speech, not merely of the chief of a section of the Opposition, but of the chief of what is for the time the controlling section of the Opposition. The President of the Left Centre takes on the whole an encouraging view of the Session. At first sight it may seem that his assumption of this cheerful tone is hardly justified by facts. The constitutional majority of the 25th of February has made way for the reactionary majority of the 15th of July, so that if the Session began

well, it has ended ill. But M. LABOULAYE reminds us that the work of the constitutional majority remains although the majority itself has been displaced, and there was a period of the Session earlier than the 25th of February when it seemed impossible that any such work could be done. In January France was still under a provisional Government. By the end of February a definitive Constitution had been framed by the general consent of all the moderate parties in the Assembly. This is a victory of which the Left may be permitted to be proud. The new Constitution does not please men who resent all compromise in politics. But M. LABOULAYE thinks that reasonable Royalists will rejoice in the re-establishment of constitutional and Parliamentary government, while reasonable Republicans will see a sufficient guarantee for the maintenance of their principles in the adoption of an elective Executive and universal suffrage. There is no further reform that may not be had peaceably and legitimately under the new Constitution. The Republican party would have been the principal losers by the maintenance of a provisional Government which was a constant menace to the Republic.

Still M. LABOULAYE confesses that all that the country needs has not yet been accomplished. The vote of a Constitution ought to be the testament of the Assembly which has framed it. The commission entrusted to the deputies in 1871 should consequently have been handed back to the electors at the earliest possible date after the 25th of February, and this might easily have been done in time to allow of the elections being held in October. This is what the Left Centre have tried to secure, but all that they succeeded in obtaining is the return of the Assembly at a time which makes it just not impossible that the elections should take place this year. When the Assembly meets on the 4th of November, they must be prepared to push on the dissolution by every means in their power. But if anything is to be gained by dissolving, the elections must be free, and free elections are incompatible with the existence of a state of siege. They cannot be held under an arbitrary law, itself the creation of the Empire, and for which no justification can be pleaded except the irrelevant one of the necessity of passing a new press law before dispensing with exceptional means of maintaining order. As M. LABOULAYE happily says, one liberty ought not to be ransomed by another. When a new law on the press is presented to the Assembly the Liberal party will be ready to consider it. But they are not prepared to make the suppression of an abuse the price of their vote, and M. LABOULAYE does not conceal his disbelief in the utility of any press law that can be proposed. It is not laws, he says, that we want; it is a little more confidence in the good sense of the country. In one-half of France there is no state of siege and no press law. Every one publishes what newspapers he likes, and yet there is no more dissatisfaction in these departments than in the departments where the state of siege is maintained. There is an obvious fallacy in this reasoning, because it may be owing to the state of siege that the worst half of France is almost on a level with the best half; but it may be allowed to Englishmen, who have tried the system of repression and the system of license, to believe that in the long run the latter is the sounder of the two. "The true sphere of the 'press,'" says M. LABOULAYE, "is opinion, and it must 'manage its own police.'

M. LABOULAYE is equally reasonable in his demands with regard to the action of the Executive in the elections. No one, he says, is obliged to be a servant of the Republic; but it is expected of a servant of the Republic, as of any other servant, that he be found faithful. After all, Republicans cannot always forget that they are living under a Republic, and they will naturally be disposed to resent the discovery that, while every form of enmity to the Republic is condoned as consistent with patriotism, the one unpardonable sin in a Republican is to behave as though he believed in the Republic. M. LABOULAYE is not unreasonable in his demands. He allows the Legitimists to retain the hope that five years hence France will be again a Monarchy. But he asks that, so long as the Republic remains the legal Government of France, it shall be accepted as such and obeyed as such. He insists that the determination to maintain the existing Constitution shall be included in the idea of Conservatism, and that the term shall no longer be applied only to politicians whose principal desire is to overturn the powers that be. Subject to these stipulations M. LABOULAYE is

willing to hope for the best. The progress of events is not, according to him, a mere phrase; it is a secret logic, a concealed force, which in the end carries with it the most obstinate and rebellious wills. Relying on this influence, he looks forward to the 4th of November as to a time by which the Government will have convinced themselves that the country desires to enter into possession of its new inheritance, and that it will no longer regard as its friends those who seek to interpose themselves between the conception and the realization of the Republic. If the Government have opened their eyes to this fact, the Left Centre will be at one with them, and if they refuse to recognize it, the Left Centre will offer a steady opposition to their policy. Either way, the Left Centre will not act by itself. The several groups of the Left are united, not only by common efforts and common sacrifices, but in the pursuit of a common end. In future Parliaments, parties may, and probably will, be differently grouped, but for the present the one desire of every member of the Left is simply to consolidate the Republic and to hurry on the elections. Sufficient for the day is the evil thereof. It will be time enough for the Left to think of its divisions when it has made good the point from which these divisions are to take their start.

MR. ANDREW JOHNSON.

THE death of Mr. ANDREW JOHNSON recalls a part of American history which, though recent, is almost forgotten. His temporary popularity and the factious virulence with which he was afterwards assailed by the Republican party correspond to two successive stages of political opinion. The Legislature of his State displayed a laudable constancy in returning him, after an interval of nine or ten years, as Senator for Tennessee. Of former ex-Presidents Mr. JOHN QUINCY ADAMS alone continued in public life after the expiration of his term. Mr. JOHNSON had probably completed his career as a political leader, but he was still able to harass the successor who had formerly given all the aid in his power to Mr. JOHNSON's enemies. Vice-Presidents who have succeeded to the highest office on death vacancies have seldom been popular. Although it is known that the nomination to the Vice-Presidency may possibly have important consequences, the selection of a candidate for a sinecure office is generally made on complimentary grounds, and the casual assumption by an obscure politician of the executive power produces jealousy and dissatisfaction. In 1864 it was almost unanimously felt that Mr. LINCOLN had earned a second term of office; and the honorary office of Vice-President seemed to afford a fitting opportunity of rewarding a slaveholder and Democrat who had preferred the maintenance of the Union to his former political associations. In addition to the services which he had rendered to the Federal cause, Mr. ANDREW JOHNSON had also vulgar claims to popularity. The elevation to the second place in the Republic of a coarse and drunken partisan, who had been a journeyman tailor, was regarded as a tribute to the sacred principle of equality. It may perhaps occur to a few Americans during the coming celebration of some hundreds of daily centenaries to remember that their famous Revolution was conducted by gentlemen. In the days of WASHINGTON and HAMILTON, a printer who, like FRANKLIN, had become an eminent man of science, was not excluded from high employment; but it would not have been thought a recommendation to a candidate for office that he had neither received education in his youth nor acquired the habits of refined society in his maturer years. Even the admirers of journeymen-tailors were slightly shocked when Mr. JOHNSON took the oath as Vice-President in a visible state of intoxication. Chivalry, or the instinct of gentlemen, is so far the cheap defence of nations that it secures them without cost against the occurrence of similar scandals. It is remarkable that the only high American office which has in late years been almost always reserved for gentlemen is that of Minister in England.

With all his faults, Mr. ANDREW JOHNSON must have possessed much natural ability and great force of character. He was forced to maintain himself by his own labour before he could read; and it is said that his wife first taught him to write. By remarkable industry and aptitude for business he gradually acquired property, including slaves; and he was in succession an alderman and

a mayor of the town where he lived, a representative, a senator, and Governor, of his native State, and United States Senator for Tennessee. After the Secession took place, Tennessee, like Kentucky, was almost equally divided between the contending parties. Neither State joined the Southern Confederation; but both contained powerful parties which were hostile to the Northern Government. Mr. JOHNSON used all his influence on behalf of the Union; and when the result of the war proved that he had been in the right or on the winning side, the Republicans eagerly welcomed a proselyte who was supposed to be a demagogue of the most popular type. Even after his unexpected accession to the Presidency, Mr. JOHNSON for a time used menacing language to the defeated party; but when he found that his Republican associates were bent on governing the South with the aid of the negroes, he remembered that he was a citizen of a slave State, and opposed with all his energy a social revolution. Succeeding to Mr. LINCOLN, who had been allowed during the war to act as a dictator, Mr. JOHNSON estimated too highly the powers of his office. The result of the contest which ensued was a practical usurpation by the Senate of the patronage which had been vested by the Constitution in the President. The nominations of the PRESIDENT were habitually rejected; and he was not even able to appoint his own Cabinet. General GRANT, then Commander-in-Chief, imprudently aided the Republican majority of the Senate to the utmost of his power. He has since had reason to regret the dependence of the President on the favour of the Senate. The House of Representatives was even more violently opposed to the PRESIDENT than the Senate. Its leaders, Mr. THADDEUS STEVENS and Mr. BUTLER, were among the most unscrupulous politicians of the time. Their wanton and vexatious impeachment of the PRESIDENT was baffled by the firmness of the most respectable Senators. Mr. JOHNSON had committed no crime except that he dissented from the policy of the Republicans as to the treatment of the conquered States. His desire for conciliation which might lead to cordial reunion was in itself not discreditable. His ignorance and recklessness on other questions were shared by his opponents. The House of Representatives passed an almost unanimous resolution for cheating the public creditor by paying the debt with paper money. The PRESIDENT outbid his adversaries by recommending that the debt should not be paid at all. Nevertheless he was an honest, and perhaps an abler, man than any of his principal opponents.

During his entire term of office Mr. JOHNSON retained as Secretary of State Mr. SEWARD, who had formerly been the most conspicuous chief of the Republican party, and who had afterwards been Mr. LINCOLN's principal Minister. Mr. JOHNSON probably knew little of foreign politics, but he concurred in the mission of Mr. REVERDY JOHNSON to England, and he approved of the treaty which was negotiated with Lord STANLEY. Mr. SUMNER, then Chairman of the Foreign Affairs Committee of the Senate, was a bitter enemy of the PRESIDENT, he was jealous of Mr. SEWARD, and he had an inveterate spite against England. The notorious oration in which he first produced the disgraceful claim for indirect damages was the expression of both personal and national ill-will. When it is remembered that Mr. SUMNER was a scholar accustomed to decent society, the predilection of the American people for illiterate tailors almost becomes excusable. Even if Mr. ANDREW JOHNSON had retained his popularity with the Republican party, he could scarcely have expected a second term of office. General GRANT's great military services ensured him a preference over any rival candidate. In the actual circumstances all parties were glad to get rid of a President who was in permanent antagonism to both branches of the Legislature. The Additional Articles of the Constitution had been passed over his veto; and, as he was opposed to majorities of two-thirds both in the Senate and in the House, he had no longer any power of controlling legislation. It seemed probable that, like more distinguished predecessors, the ex-President would retire into the obscurity of private life; but the tough old politician still liked excitement and struggle, and he even hoped for revenge on his enemies and persecutors. His quarrel with the Republicans naturally restored him to the ranks of his former Democratic allies. The people of his State were proud of the successful adventurer who had attained the highest rank in the Union, and after a short interval Mr. JOHNSON was once more active as a State

Senator. His anticipations were more than justified by the reaction which, after General GRANT's re-election, swept over the entire Union. The innumerable peculations of Republican legislators and functionaries had provoked just and general indignation. Mr. JOHNSON, when he was President, had advocated public dishonesty, through ignorance of history, morality, economy, and law; but he was never suspected of personal malversation. It was probably not without satisfaction that he heard how the Speaker of the House which impeached him had accepted a bribe of a few hundred dollars from a Railway Company, and afterwards attempted to avoid detection by a long series of falsehoods. His return to the Senate of the United States caused some anxiety to his former enemies, and perhaps to the PRESIDENT himself.

The issues which, with much superfluous complication, were raised during Mr. JOHNSON's Presidency have not yet been determined by experience. His policy was to efface as soon as possible the traces of the Civil War by restoring the defeated party to all their rights as members of the Union. The Republican leaders, on the other hand, were above all things anxious to provide security for the negroes, and some of them were actuated by revengeful feelings to the dominant race. The triumph of the Republicans produced in the first instance highly mischievous results. The electoral strength of the negroes was manipulated by Northern adventurers of the lowest class for the most corrupt purposes. The oppressed white population was sometimes provoked into violent acts and lawless combinations, which again were grossly exaggerated by their Republican adversaries. The excess of the evil tended in some degree to cure itself. It was only by external aid that the negroes and their voluntary leaders could maintain their local power against a superior race. General GRANT in many cases gave military support to the Republican faction in the South, even where its conduct had been clearly illegal; but opinion in the North, even in the Republican party, has greatly changed. Almost all the Southern States are now controlled by their natural leaders, and through the operation of successive amnesties, and by lapse of time, the best citizens are no longer excluded from public life. It is difficult to ascertain how far the inhabitants of the Southern States are reconciled to the failure of their gallant struggle. Eye-witnesses, native and foreign, publish, in apparent good faith, the most opposite accounts of the present state of feeling. Local circumstances probably explain much difference of opinion. The victims of the ruthless inroads of SHERIDAN and SHERMAN are not likely to forget their losses and their sufferings; but there are wide regions in the South which were never devastated or traversed by Federal troops. It is not impossible that the celebration of the War of Independence at Philadelphia may have a sentimental influence on both Northern and Southern Americans. The ancestors of both took part in the rebellion against England on principles which were exactly applicable to the so-called rebellion of the Confederate States. Sooner or later national pride will predominate over provincial hostility. The object which Mr. ANDREW JOHNSON unsuccessfully endeavoured to promote will be attained by other means. The South has not yet recovered the prosperity which was impaired by the war and by the emancipation of the slaves; but the cotton crops are larger than before the war, and the prospects are brighter than in the days of Mr. JOHNSON's Presidency.

STATE OF THE FRENCH ARMY.

A WRITER in the current number of *Blackwood's Magazine* has given a sketch of the present state of the French army which cannot fail to attract attention, both here and abroad. He writes as a friend of France, and evidently has arrived with sincere regret at the conclusions which the facts he has collected have forced on him. He thinks that the present state of the French army is a poor one, and that the great opportunity of giving it a new character and imparting to it a new strength which peace, after a very instructive war, afforded, has hitherto been almost entirely thrown away. That the truth should be known can, he urges, do no harm, for the Germans are perfectly aware of everything that he has to tell; while it may do some good, as it is only through foreigners that the French can learn anything about

their own army, so long as their own press is forbidden to touch on a subject which the authorities think too delicate and dangerous for discussion. The first point which the writer seeks to establish—and it is the cardinal point of his whole criticism—is that the appointment of General DE CISSEY as Minister of War was a great mistake. He was selected for his important office by M. THIERS, and for four years he has been entrusted with the task of reorganizing the army. But he has done little or nothing. He surrendered himself from the outset to the dictation of the bureaux, and the permanent officials have made him work in the old grooves, accept the old excuses, retain the old abuses. It is true that there is a much better spirit than there was before the war in a large portion of the officers. There are men among them who are not only willing but eager to study, who examine military questions by the light of modern science, and who are anxious to reach the highest standard of German instruction. But the war introduced into the list of officers numbers of discharged non-commissioned officers, who were often the only men that could be got to take the command of the levies raised after Sedan, and who now hold their rank without any capacity for learning anything that it costs mental study to learn; and the more enthusiastic and intelligent officers are getting rapidly disheartened by finding that their efforts are vain, and that everything is paralysed by the blindness and adherence to routine of those in authority. If an enterprising officer provides a club and libraries for the purposes of military discussion as soon as his work is successful enough to attract notice, the supervision of the institution he has created is taken away from him, and given to a nominee of General DE CISSEY. If an important practical detail like the question how the men are to be shod is to be determined, although a hundred officers who are active enough to try themselves whether shoes or half-boots are best may all condemn the shoes, the ultimate decision is referred to a Committee of seven old generals who can scarcely hobble about in a boot or a shoe, and who successfully advise the Government to stick to the shoes in which they have for years been accustomed to see their men equipped. Everywhere, in great things as in small, is to be seen what the writer terms the dissolving influence of routine, and, among other things, this influence dissolves the confidence of the best officers and the hopes of the friends of France.

The Assembly has at least had good intentions, and has passed Bills which were intended to make the army very different from what it was in former days. It began by enacting that every man should be liable to serve between the ages of twenty and forty, remaining nine years in the active army and its reserve, and eleven years in the territorial army and its reserve. This, however, gave too many men in time of peace, and so it was arranged that half of the conscripts of each year should be merely enrolled for a short period, so as to give them some notion of drill, and then be sent away. The system of one-year volunteers was also adopted from Germany, and during the first year after the introduction of the new law no less than twelve thousand volunteers of this description were admitted. As no one can be a one-year volunteer without paying 60*l.* to the State, the exemption from longer service which these volunteers enjoy is looked on by their fellow-soldiers as an unjust privilege accorded to the rich; and the growing want of persons fit to act as *sous-officiers* caused by the abolition of the premium on their renewing their term of service, is aggravated by the withdrawal at the end of a year of those whom a somewhat better education might have fitted to fill their places. The law of military organization provided that there should be *corps d'armée* stationed in various parts of France with which the reserves of the district might be drilled. This was meant to supply a means of rapid mobilization. But, in the first place, there is no local connexion between the troops of the *corps d'armée* and the district, as the men of each regiment continue to be drawn from all parts of the country, and the reserves when they arrive find themselves among entire strangers. In the next place, the French are said to be wanting in that spirit of passive obedience which makes the Germans assemble together like so many machines when mobilization is ordered. And, lastly, the Germans have a greater strength in each regiment on the peace footing, and it is therefore easier for them to fill up their companies when war breaks out. More recently, the Assembly passed the *loi des cadres*, by which each regiment

is to consist at its full strength of 18 companies of 250 men each. This would give 4,500 men to each of the 160 regiments of infantry. In time of peace, or at any rate at present, the number of men actually serving in a regiment is supposed to be 1,800; but the writer gives reasons for conjecturing that the actual strength does not exceed 1,200. In other words, the real active force of French infantry is one-third less than the Ministry of War states it to be, and the whole French army in France and Algeria does not, in the opinion of the writer, exceed 250,000 men. The money which is voted for a larger number of men is really expended in fortifications and in guns. Of the new system of fortifications the writer speaks in high terms, and he even thinks that the Eastern line of French defence will hereafter be as good as it was before 1870. In four years' time there will be over three millions of rifles of the new pattern, and steel cannon are being rapidly introduced into the service. Of horses there is a great dearth; but a law has been passed rendering all horses liable to be used for military purposes on payment of proper compensation. Something, therefore, has been done to make France once more a great military power, but it is very little, and far beneath what the resources of the country and the real desire of the French to regain their position in Europe would have led foreigners to expect.

There can be no doubt that the account thus given of the state of the French army is in many respects a true one. That routine should hang heavily over all attempts at improvement is natural in France and in most other countries. It may be possible, but it is very difficult, for the state of things to arise and endure in which active men with new ideas are allowed to remodel everything after their own fashion, and those who have already risen to power and eminence are summarily and entirely pushed aside. That NAPOLEON would have done more than General DE CISSEY may be easily conceded; and perhaps, among existing French generals, M. THIERS might have made a more fortunate choice. But the circumstances under which the French army is now being reorganized ought to be taken into account. The Government is pledged to a policy of peace, the country wishes for peace, the army itself knows that it is not for some time to come to expect a new war. The army costs more than twenty millions sterling, and this is a large sum for a country to pay which has been subjected to a heavy burden of new taxation. The main question which the authorities had to settle was whether they should begin by providing new fortifications and guns, or by getting together a large number of drilled men. The choice was made in favour of fortifications and guns, and it is by no means clear that it was not a wise one. To have got together a big army without the weapons to arm them or fortifications to protect the country might have been to foment the military spirit of the nation, and to have offered an easy prey to the enemy when war broke out. If the figures given by the writer in *Blackwood* are to be trusted, there cannot be now much more than 150,000 infantry in France. This is, it must be owned, a very small force for France to have. The paucity of troops fit for immediate service, and, if the estimate given of General DE CISSEY is correct, the want of a man with large views and personal weight at the head of the military administration, are the weak points of the present state of the French army. France is not in the least prepared for war, and as the Germans are always supposed to know everything about the French army, it is difficult to give the Germans who invented or were affected by the late panic credit for sincerity when they professed to believe that France was hurrying on the hour of a new contest. But the other side of the picture ought to be kept in mind. The writer in *Blackwood* thinks that the new scheme of fortifications is most successful and creditable. The new rifles are said to be as good as the new German rifles. If the French do not get hold of a good field gun, it will certainly not be for want of experiments or funds. When the time comes for attending seriously to an increase of the numerical strength of the army, the military authorities will be able to get hold, under the existing laws, of as many men as they can arm and pay for. The material has been provided for them, the men who will have to serve are sure to be forthcoming. As to the officers, the writer in *Blackwood* himself states that the majority of officers are fairly educated, filled with zeal for the service, determined to be real soldiers, and aware that to do their duty in these days they must

patiently learn how to do it. This, surely, is a most satisfactory thing to be true in a country so lately accustomed to the type of officer who was in his glory in the latter days of the Second Empire. With fortifications and guns and good officers and a system of military territorial arrangement which is at least fairly promising, and an inexhaustible supply of men under a law of universal obligation to serve, there seems no reason why France should despair of having an army that will do her credit, not immediately, not even soon—for to look to that would be contrary to the whole policy of the country and the Government—but at a time when a different policy could be adopted with a chance of success.

COLONEL BAKER'S CASE.

IT is a pity that the proceedings in Colonel BAKER's case could not have been abridged. It was idle to expect to convict him on the graver charge, and hopeless to try to procure his acquittal on the minor charge. The experienced counsel engaged in the case might have been expected to see what was evident to almost everybody else, and if they did see it they would have saved trouble by avowing their conclusions. Colonel BAKER was indicted for an assault with intent to commit a rape, and in order to find him guilty on that charge the jury ought to be satisfied that when he laid hold of the young lady he not only desired to gratify his passion, but intended to do so at all events, and notwithstanding any resistance on her part. This statement of the law is taken from a charge of a very learned and able Judge, and when the question is thus put the answer to it is obviously negative. It may be true that the moral guilt of seduction is equal to that of rape, and it certainly is true that many men have been punished for rape whose real crime was seduction. To indict Colonel BAKER for an attempt at rape, and to press for a conviction against him on this charge, tended to confuse the provinces of morality and law, which lawyers generally endeavour to keep separate. This attempt, ably made by the prosecution, was resisted with equal skill by the defence, and thus all the circumstances of the assault had to be minutely described and criticized. We regret that this exhibition of forensic cleverness could not have been spared. But, from force of habit, a powerful advocate can hardly help putting his case strongly, and the only thing to do is to get another powerful advocate to put the case as strongly the other way. This at least is how we do it in England, when money is forthcoming for the purpose. But whether money be forthcoming or not, the Judges seldom fail to correct any undue pressure against the defendant. In this case Mr. Justice BRETT summed up very fairly and very clearly, and he expressed the view which we think might have been taken at the outset by the prosecution, and which certainly was generally taken by well-informed society. He asked the jury to consider whether the evidence showed an intention to commit a rape, or whether it did not rather show an attempt to get the young lady into such familiar intercourse as might lead the way to seduction. The question was not whether he intended to compass his object partly by force, partly by persuasion, and partly by exciting passion, but whether he intended to use all the force of which he was master, and to use brutal violence to effect his object. The learned Judge here referred to what every reader of the trial will recognize as the two strongest points of evidence against the defendant. The first witness who spoke to the most material of these was the guard of the train, and he was made to look exceedingly foolish on cross-examination for having said "three-parts," when in strict accuracy he might have said "five-sixths," or "six-sevenths." But as two other witnesses, passengers by the train, spoke to the same circumstance, it may be taken to have been sufficiently established, and it could hardly be ascribed to accident. Supposing the "impression" of the principal witness to be correct, the defendant supplied this evidence against himself, and had no opportunity of removing it. He was no doubt occupied in a genuine desire to save the life which he had endangered, and as soon as the train stopped he got out, and his condition was observed. But even supposing that he did the act suggested, still, said Mr. Justice BRETT, that did not suffice to prove an intention to commit rape. "If you are of opinion that he intended—most wickedly intended—partly by force, partly by persuasion, and partly by exciting her feelings, to get from her a re-

"luctant consent, and that he did not intend to attain his object by force and violence alone, in spite of any resistance she might make, then it would be your duty to acquit upon this charge, for it would not amount to the attempt to ravish which is charged." The jury, having this distinct direction, were able after brief deliberation to acquit the defendant on the major charge, and he had in effect pleaded guilty to the minor charge, offering by the mouth of his counsel the deepest expression of his remorse, regret, and self-reproach. We can only lament that this unedifying drama should have been so prolonged, and further that a general holiday should have been chosen for performing it. Monday last was not only a Bank Holiday, but—what has been almost as rare lately—a fine day, and many persons could find nothing better to do with themselves than to crowd the Assize Court or its approaches, standing perhaps for hours in the street to catch a glimpse of the Judge's carriage or of the cab which was supposed to be conveying the prisoner to gaol. Of course all the evidence was given verbatim in the newspapers, but we are happy to observe that, by repeated protests, the nuisance of descriptive reporting has been largely mitigated.

The verdict in the case might have been arrived at in half-an-hour, but there may be some difference of opinion as to the sentence. It is necessary to allow to the Judges large discretion in awarding punishment, and, this being so, we ought not lightly to question a particular decision, although our own judgment may not altogether approve it. It was stated lately by one of the Judges that they have a sort of tariff of punishment among themselves, and we may conjecture that, in preparing to deal with this case, Mr. Justice BRETT consulted his experienced colleague the LORD CHIEF BARON. It may be remarked, by the way, that this opportunity of obtaining the help of another opinion is one of the advantages of employing two Judges on each circuit which economists would do well not to undervalue. But whether the sentence on Colonel BAKER was the result of the deliberation of one Judge or two, it was certain to provoke the comment that, if the defendant had come from the class of which most of our criminals belong, he would have been sentenced to not less than twelve months' imprisonment with the ordinary accompaniment of hard labour, from which Colonel BAKER has been spared. Almost inevitably in discussing this aspect of the matter we recall to mind the case of Lord COCHRANE, afterwards Earl of DUNDONALD, who was convicted—wrongly, as is now generally believed—of a conspiracy to commit a fraud, and was sentenced by Lord ELLENBOROUGH to fine, imprisonment, and the pillory. The enemies of Lord ELLENBOROUGH would say that on this occasion he determined to feed fat the ancient grudge he bore to a bitter and pertinacious opponent of the Government to which he belonged. The apologists of Lord ELLENBOROUGH would urge that he was entitled to assume that Lord COCHRANE was rightly convicted of a disgraceful crime for which the most ignominious punishment was the most appropriate. Lord COCHRANE was not exposed on the pillory because his colleague in the representation of Westminster, Sir FRANCIS BURDETT, declared that if he were placed there he would stand beside him, and the Government did not dare to face the popular outbreak which was inevitable. The cases are so far analogous that Lord COCHRANE was, after NELSON, the most brilliant commander of our navy in its most glorious age, and Colonel BAKER served with great efficiency in the Crimea, and is generally reputed to be one of the best cavalry officers in the army. Suppose that Lord COCHRANE had committed the fraud imputed to him, would not a general and wholesome feeling have deprecated such a punishment as the pillory? The principle of excusing distinguished soldiers from punishments usually appropriated to low and infamous persons has prevailed in all ages, and probably therefore corresponds to some natural sentiment of mankind. We must allow, indeed, that in our army this principle has been strangely violated, for it is beyond doubt that soldiers who had fought at Waterloo were flogged afterwards. But still the principle has been of late years conceded, and the rule was adopted with general approval, that no soldier should be flogged unless his character had been previously lowered by some offence.

There is, therefore, much to be said for the course taken by Mr. Justice BRETT, particularly in the case of an officer who is declared by competent judges to be particularly capable of serving his country in difficulties which may possibly arise. The marketable quali-

fications of a working-man fresh from the treadmill are perhaps enhanced by the wholesome diet and exercise. Not so those of a professional man. It should be remembered, too, that no imputation has been made against Colonel BAKER's conduct since he had time to reflect upon the outrage he had committed. It was not the fault of him or his counsel that the whole painful and disgusting story had to be told over again on Monday. At first, indeed, he seems to have been under the impression that he had not done anything so very wrong. He was ready to play the part of LOVELACE with no more compunction than LOVELACE felt, and without liability to the penalty which he suffered. If, indeed, the moral sense of society had not improved, it would be far better to recur to the practice of a century ago. If in those days the seducer was not liable to cold or averted looks from his friends and comrades, there was at least some hope that he might be shot or stabbed. But Colonel BAKER has fully learned how existing society views his conduct, and if his mind was at all in doubt on the subject when he entered the Assize Court, he must have been fully enlightened by the speeches of the prosecuting counsel, of his own counsel, and of the Judge. As a forcible denunciation of vile and unmanly conduct, Serjeant PARRY's address to the jury in this case must have been heard and read with general satisfaction; but it certainly tended to confuse the boundaries between immorality and crime, and was just the kind of speech which, unless it had been answered, might have suggested to the jury "to do a great right, do a little wrong." Even if the Judge has erred on the side of leniency in his sentence, the error will not be likely to encourage other libertines to similar atrocities. There have been few more impressive spectacles of crime and punishment. The age of chivalry, if it ever existed except in the imagination of poets, has long since departed, but still it could hardly have been believed that military honour did not imply respect for youth and purity. Colonel BAKER may be safely left where the Judge has placed him; for, although the sentence might well have been more severe, the shame and ruin which it entails are so complete as to leave only the most feeble and distant hope of any recovery of character or opportunity of professional distinction.

Let us add that a more striking commentary on the doctrine of "uncontrollable impulse" to crime could not well be offered. Colonel BAKER was for the moment mad—as the mad-doctors understand madness; he was mastered by the overpowering force of passion. But nobody dreamed of calling in experts to fritter away moral and legal responsibility with pseudo-scientific sophisms. In dealing with this sort of criminal insanity society is clear that the law must still be a terror to evil-doers.

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION IN IRELAND.

TIME has worked a singular change in the relative educational positions of England and Ireland. It is not very long since the Irish National system used to be held up to the admiration of Englishmen as a blessing which, with all their wealth and energy, they had made no approach to securing for themselves. Now it is the English system that is held up to the admiration of Irishmen as the pattern on which they must strive, and may one day hope, to remodel their own arrangements. Of late years the speech of the Chief Secretary for Ireland on moving the Education Estimates has always been pitched in a minor key. The utmost he attempts to say is that things are not quite so bad as they have been represented. They are bad enough, that he frankly admits; but they are not so bad that they could not be worse. Sir MICHAEL HICKS BEACH was full of comforting suggestions of this kind when he introduced the annual vote. The average attendance of children on the school rolls was not satisfactory; but on this point England had no right to throw stones. It must be remembered, too, that Ireland is an agricultural country, and that it is much more difficult to secure regular attendance in agricultural districts than it is in towns. There was a great deal of illiteracy in Ireland, but then in Ireland there has been an Educational Census, while in England there has not been one, so that the extent of English illiteracy may never have been discovered. Again, there is a provoking connexion between illiteracy and the love of country. Irish people who can read and write are much given to emigration, while those whose education has been neglected perseveringly stay at home. In all these ways the Irish National

system gets more than its fair share of discredit. Still, after every possible allowance has been made, the result remains, what Sir MICHAEL HICKS BEACH stated it to be, not satisfactory.

The defects of the Irish system are principally three—the want of any power of enforcing attendance, the want of any power of drawing money from the rates, and the want of competent teachers. In England we are only disputing whether compulsion shall be made universal, whereas in Ireland they are scarcely even debating whether it shall be tried. It is the same with the absence of anything in the nature of an education rate. There is very little voluntary aid given to schools in Ireland, and no Government seems bold enough to propose as an alternative the English practice of laying the burden on each locality. It is clear that, unless the Parliamentary grant is largely increased, or a system of rating established, Irish education must remain in a very disadvantageous position as compared with England. The immense efforts which the clergy and others have made during the last thirty years have been found to leave a large part of England unprovided with schools. Voluntary aid usually, and almost necessarily, breaks down where the want of it is greatest. In the poorest neighbourhoods the need of contributions is usually greatest, and the number of contributors is usually least. In Ireland, at all events as regards the maintenance of schools, every neighbourhood is poor, and the remedy which in England has been made coextensive with the need has no existence. Still these deficiencies, great as they are, would of themselves affect rather the quantity than the quality of the instruction given. Where there is an imperfect provision of schools, and no means of forcing children to attend them, the returns of attendance will of course be bad, but the children who do attend may be well taught. But if the teachers are inefficient into the bargain, even this last chance disappears, and this is unhappily true of the Irish National system. The teaching is bad, partly because the teachers are underpaid, and partly because there is no adequate machinery for training them. To the first of these defects the Government are in some degree alive. Sir MICHAEL HICKS BEACH has not been able this year to make any proposal about pensions to teachers; but the Government have included the provision of houses for teachers of non-vested schools among the objects for which the Board of Works in Ireland are authorized to make loans, and they propose to make an addition of 60,000/- to the annual pay of the teachers. By itself this last provision would be less than was last year distributed over the whole body of National School teachers in the shape of additional payments for results. The deficiency is to be made good, however, by a Bill enabling the Irish Poor Law Guardians to raise a further sum of 60,000/-, to be paid in result fees to the teachers. Great doubts have been expressed as to the disposition of the Guardians to raise this money. Sir MICHAEL HICKS BEACH answered several of the theoretical objections urged against the proposal, but he wisely did not say much about the probability that the Guardians would make use of the power vested in them. It may be true that, as the money, if given at all, must be given to all the National Schools in the Union, there will be no room for the introduction of the religious difficulty. It may be true that, as the payment is not compulsory, and is only to be made on results ascertained by Government inspection, the Guardians can have no claim to a share in the management of the school in return for the money paid to the teacher. It may be true that the teachers "will properly lay great blame on the Guardians if, for the sake of the small tax of one penny in the pound, they hesitate to make this great improvement in their position." None of this reasoning affects the fact mentioned by Mr. MORRIN in his letter to the *Times*, that the Guardians of some of the most important Unions of Ireland have already passed a Resolution protesting against any increase in the salary of National School teachers being thrown on the local rates, as they are of opinion "that the education of the children of the country is a national question, and that the cost should be borne by the country." There are few oppositions so impracticable as the opposition to any increase in local rates, and we shall not be surprised if the Bill proves to be little better than useless in presence of the resistance of which the first note has thus been sounded.

Supposing, however, that in these two ways a substantial addition is made to the salaries of National School teachers in Ireland, the want of good teaching will not necessarily be met. The teachers will be better paid, but they will

not on that account be better trained. The Irish system, which in most respects is an exceedingly elastic one, has in this particular case shown a rigid adherence to form which has been exceedingly injurious to the objects which it was instituted to serve. The real aim of the Irish National system is to supply elementary education in schools which may safely be attended by children of the two religions professed by Irishmen. The way in which this is done is by the prohibition of religious teaching in the hours during which Catholic and Protestant children are together in school, and of the use of religious emblems in schools which are attended by Catholic and Protestant children. The teacher of every school will of course be either a Catholic or a Protestant, according as the school patrons belong to one or the other creed; but the necessary security for children of a religion different from that of the teacher is considered to be obtained by these provisions. There is no reason to suppose that teachers trained at Denominational training schools would be at all more given to proselytism than teachers trained at a training school from which the element of religion is altogether excluded. But even if there were reason to suppose this, the distinction would be of no importance, since the choice does not lie between proselytizing teachers from a Denominational training school and non-proselytizing teachers trained at a mixed training school, but between proselytizing teachers trained at a Denominational training school and proselytizing teachers trained nowhere. Catholic managers will not employ any but Catholic teachers in their schools, and Catholic parents will not send their children to training colleges from which religion is excluded. Consequently the National Board have to put up with untrained teachers as a better alternative than having no teachers at all. Given that the majority of Irish children must be taught by extreme Ultramontanes, is it better that these extreme Ultramontanes shall have passed through a good training school and be thoroughly competent to give secular instruction to their pupils, or that they should be ignorant and inefficient as regards their proper work, and probably, if anything, rather more bigoted than their fellows who have had some experience of intellectual discipline? There is no third alternative; and as between these two it is unintelligible that there should be even a momentary hesitation.

HOLIDAY-MAKING.

LAST year we expressed a hope that the part of the public whom the institution of stated holidays might peculiarly affect would in time learn to turn that institution to good account. It is natural enough that to those who are constantly employed in manual labour the primitive idea of a holiday should be a state of complete idleness, a vacant interval for body and mind—*παρ δέ δέρας οὐρανοῦ πνεύμα θεοῦ θύρας άνων*. The last of these conditions has indeed been thought a chief constituent in holiday-making by a good many people whose labour is not manual. But in an age like this, which, warned, perhaps, by Sir Andrew Aguecheek's regret at not having followed the arts, has engaged in their pursuit with an enthusiasm and an understanding equal to his; an age which delights in the mystic joys of symphonies in green, and dallies lovingly with the hidden beauties of Chippendale chairs; which hangs its walls with china whose value varies directly with its cracks, so that one expects a plate entirely consisting of rim to fetch a fabulous price, it might be supposed that the stream of artistic taste flowing downwards, as streams are wont to do, would gradually fertilize the land that was barren before, and cause it to bear trees after its own most admired and faded fashion. One might have expected that some of the subtle tones wherein the present artistic cant delights might have been carried from the haunts of artistic fanatics to those of men untrained to art, who might have learnt from their sweet influence to appreciate the precious things set before them. But the speech of the present-day prophets of art is a thing too rare—in one sense, for in another sense it is common enough—to be lightly squandered; their vocation is to instruct the members of women's colleges with silvered eloquence, or to set their words of wisdom vibrating with soft vagueness about the rooms of a bisexual club. None of them has as yet attempted to carry instruction and inculcate taste where it is most wanted. There are reasons, however, more obviously in the way of any sense of the gratification to be derived from art-works being acquired by the class upon whom they might be made to exercise a powerful influence for good. Children cannot be taught to read by being allowed to enter a library once or twice a year, and the conditions which deny to men who are actively employed throughout the week the chance of making any acquaintance which might beget a desire for further knowledge with public galleries or museums have not been altered since last year. It is natural, therefore, that the number of artisans found, for instance, in the National Gallery, should not have increased, and that most of the few who were

there should have gone about their picture-seeing in a listless, uninterested manner. There were some whose object in visiting the place appeared to be anything rather than seeing the pictures. The rooms of the National Gallery are not, apart from the paintings they enclose, so cheerful in their aspect that one would expect them to be selected as an agreeable place wherein to read a newspaper; nevertheless they were chosen for that purpose by some visitors. Others who did take some heed of the paintings seemed to care little for any modern works, and to be attracted principally to the early Italian pictures, partly by their quaintness, partly by a mysterious veneration for their age, and partly by the splendour of their setting. Some observations overheard upon this point recalled to mind a group of tourists who were heard, while gazing at the San Sisto Madonna, to express their rapture in these words:—"Lor! What a handsome frame!" There is this difference, however, between the two cases, that the tourists had had many opportunities of learning better and the holiday-makers have not. And from the fact that these visit a picture gallery at all, it may be argued that a chance of going there more frequently would not be wasted if given to them.

However, the contemplation of inanimate objects is very far from being the only rational and advisable way of spending a holiday, and it is worth while to consider what manner of enjoyment in other ways was provided for and accepted by a happy and intelligent populace. To judge from the advertisements which heralded the holiday, there was a brisk competition among various benevolent persons as to who should offer the most brilliant delights to an expectant crowd. One place of popular entertainment, for example, announced the singular attraction of dancing from twelve in the morning till twelve at night to the music of three bands. Whether the three bands were to play all at once, or to relieve each other in turn, so that there might be an unbroken succession of sweet sounds, was not stated. But the vision of dancing from noon till midnight must have been enticing enough without any adventitious aid. Even this, however, was surpassed by another institution which put forth to its visitors the surprising offer of fifteen hours' enjoyment. What would be the fate of any one who should succeed in obtaining fifteen hours' enjoyment we hardly dare to think. It suggests elaborate speculations as to the difference and the kinship between pleasure and pain, the point where the one merges into the other, and the duration of time necessary to convert happiness into torture. As nothing was stated to the contrary, it may be assumed for the credit of humanity that there were intervals in the fifteen hours, as there used to be in the applications of the rack. In spite of such boons as these showered upon them, and of the various theatrical morning performances for which the holiday served as an excuse, there was the same listless and stolid air among the holiday-makers out of doors as among those who sauntered through the National Gallery or crowded with gaping admiration around a garish wooden picture of Royalty at the Academy. Whether this dulness of spirit is due to climate or national temperament, or to the absence of any cheering circumstances, it is certainly not, like Miranda's, a good dulness. Walking through the Parks, and observing the heaviness of all around, it was impossible not to remember and desire the brightness of the Champs Elysées, with the pleasant chatter and the childish gaiety of the people and their amusements. It is certainly difficult to imagine a show of Punchinello or a merry-go-round attracting little knots of laughing idlers in Hyde Park; probably the English temper is too heavy to handle such airy trifles as delight the French; for gaiety there is found coarse buffoonery, and with the idea of excitement is coupled that of intoxication. But it is not only from the French that a lesson can be got in the art of amusement; the Germans have not the French lightness of spirit, but they know how to enjoy themselves in a thorough and rational manner, as may be learnt from a visit to any one of the gardens of which the Grosser Garten at Dresden may be taken as a type. There men sit with pipes and beer while their wives pursue that endless knitting which stands to them in the place of tobacco and drink, and listen to music which may safely be asserted to be better worth listening to than the three bands which were to accompany the long career of dancing mentioned above. They take their pleasure with a placid content and ineffable calm which is very different from the French hilarity. It must be observed, however, that the German respectability is somewhat overrated, for the German placidity occasionally breaks out into great rowdyism and coarseness. There appears to be no possible reason why some such institution as the German garden, modified to suit the requirements of climate, should not find a place in London; and it is strange that none such has ever been attempted. There is a vast deal of cant talked about the English mechanic and his suit of decent black; but as that is frequently assumed with the intention that its wearer shall celebrate the freedom of his limbs from work by setting them free also from all constraint of reason, one may doubt whether there is any such mystic virtue in the garb as seems frequently to be ascribed to it. It cannot, however, be supposed that the English mechanic is, as a rule, inferior to the German or French in mental power or capacity for taste; but it is certain that he has far less chance of cultivating his faculties. It is not on him that the discredit of his spending his holidays ill should fall so much as upon those who might, and do not, teach him to spend them better. There is no reason why a time free from the ordinary calls of labour should be employed in this or that particular way so long as it is employed in a manner consistent with reason and decency. It is very conceivable that a

man's great longing on the occasion of a holiday may be for the breath of fresh air and the sight of green trees; but the difficulties in the way of gratifying this longing at any time, and especially when a vast quantity of people are inspired with the same desire, are considerable. The number of outlets from London to the country are very limited in proportion to the numbers who wish to make use of them; and the insolence of office is nowhere better exemplified than in the position assumed by railway authorities to their passengers. It is not only exceptionally sensitive men who might well be deterred from an excursion from town to country by the prospect of the marvellous discomfort and inconvenience involved in it. Nor is it easy to gain access to such pleasant haunts as men may dream of for the recreation of their weariness. The real country is hard to come at in these days when every available inch of ground is apt to the hand of the builder. Under these circumstances the example set by Lord Salisbury and Lord Essex, who threw open their parks on the occasion of the Bank Holiday, has peculiar force, and it is especially desirable that it should be followed. It may be hoped that the majority of the English public require nothing more than to be met half way in order to be induced to take their pleasure in a manly and orderly fashion.

But for some portion of those who seek amusement it is difficult to entertain any agreeable expectations. Whatever ideas one might have formed as to the way in which the public would choose to divert itself, it must have been something of a shock to learn that an enormous concourse found its chief delight in attempting to hear the trial at Croydon which excited so much attention last Monday. There are many reasons—which, however, can apply only to a small number of people—why a remarkable trial should be a subject of particular interest. There is also, if one may judge from the aimless crowds who assemble daily in the Law Courts at Westminster, an inexplicable attraction in seeing justice administered even upon the dullest subjects. But, however much one may set down to such causes as these, there can be no doubt that the chief motive which brought together a disorderly assemblage at Croydon was the same kind of morbid curiosity which, when displayed lately on the other side of the Atlantic, excited a natural and commendable disgust on this side. And from those whose notion of pleasure is like that of flies, to congregate wherever they think they may find an infected spot, what can be hoped?

DR. DÖLLINGER ON THE MEDIÆVAL AND MODERN EMPIRES.

IT is pleasant to find that the great religious trial through which Dr. Döllinger has recently passed has neither dimmed the clearness of his insight nor diminished his interest in those historical studies which have been the chief labour of his life, and in which he has attained so high an eminence. He took occasion last week, on the birthday of the King of Bavaria, to deliver an address to the Scientific Academy at Munich, of which he is the President, and in doing so was naturally led to compare, or rather to contrast, the restored German Empire with the Holy Roman Empire, of which it may in some sort be regarded as the heir. It is natural, at least for Germans, in view of the vast future opening before them, to look to a time when their country "may again become what it was between the tenth and the thirteenth century, the leader of the great movements of the world, with the hegemony of Europe." Those, however, as the lecturer observes, can alone form any reasonable judgment as to the possibilities of the future who are well acquainted with past history, and can thus predict from the basis of actual knowledge. It becomes, therefore, a matter of practical interest to consider how Germany and Bavaria came to be what they are, and thus we are reminded of that solitary epoch of the national life when Bavaria was called to take a prominent part in the general history of Europe, in the time of Lewis IV., "the only Bavarian prince who held the Royal and Imperial Crown of Germany, with the exception of the shadowy Emperor Charles VII." After referring to some modern works on the subject, none of which can be regarded as thoroughly adequate, and to the light thrown on some parts of it by recent researches, Dr. Döllinger observes that the period from 1314 to 1347 is still one of the most obscure in German history. There is no such work on the reign of Lewis the Bavarian as on the First, Second, and Sixth Henry, or on Frederick I. and II. at an earlier date. Vast indeed is the contrast between the Empire of Lewis in the fourteenth century and that of William in the nineteenth; "there a kingdom hopelessly falling to pieces, the dying out of a famous order which had lasted for centuries; here an auspicious resurrection and regeneration; a Hercules strong enough to strangle in his cradle the serpents which threaten his life." And yet, amid all these differences, it is impossible not to be struck with parallels and resemblances also. The whole reign of Lewis was a Sisyphean labour with no result; the gentle and philanthropic Emperor was engaged throughout in deadly struggle with the two hereditary enemies of the Empire—the German princes and the Papacy—behind whom stood the insidious policy of France, and was at last compelled to succumb.

The Papacy had long been working to consolidate its dominion through the double instrumentality of Imperial and episcopal elections. The great German prelates, who had received wealth and influence from the Emperors, and had formerly been appointed by

them, were gradually reduced, through the investiture controversy and its consequences, to the condition of virtual nominees and creatures of the Roman Curia, which knew how to manage or overrule the Chapters to whose hands the right of episcopal election was now consigned. Not unfrequently the Popes actually appointed the Spiritual Electors to the Empire themselves. And thus it had come to pass before the fourteenth century that the election of an Emperor was mainly determined by the following four considerations. First, the principle of hereditary succession had been altogether set aside, partly through the decision of Gregory VII., accepted by the German princes, against the succession of an unworthy son, partly by the reservation of the franchise in the thirteenth century to the seven Electors who were represented as deriving their rights from a grant of Gregory V., and were of course expected to exercise it according to the Papal will. In the next place, a weak Emperor was generally preferred to a strong one. Thirdly, a candidate displeasing to the Pope or to the French Court was excluded, or even deposed, if elected. And, fourthly, a regular transaction took place at every election, large sums of money being paid to the Spiritual Electors, and land given to the secular princes. The fruits of this system are seen in the miserable interregnum between the murder of Conrad IV. and the election of Rudolph of Hapsburg in 1273, whose son again was not allowed to succeed him. The election of Henry of Luxembourg in 1308 was entirely the work of the Spiritual Electors, who were heavily bribed. Lewis of Bavaria next ascended the throne, after he had succeeded in conquering Frederick of Hapsburg; but against him stood France, supported by the Avignon Popes, who were in the French interest, and both powers had their own special ends to serve. France would have liked above all to get the Imperial Crown itself, which Philip had vainly endeavoured in 1308 to obtain for his brother Charles of Anjou; and there was another scheme for bringing this about, and deposing Lewis IV. in 1324. The French were more successful in their second object, the acquisition of fresh territory from the Empire. The Pope desired, first the suppression of the Ghibellines, and next the transference of the Imperial Crown to France, as is testified by the annalist of the Roman Court, who had seen a letter of the Pope's to this effect to the King of France in the Papal archives. It was the received theory of Roman theologians and jurists then, and till the sixteenth century, that the Popes had taken the Empire from the Greeks to give it to the Franks, then to the Italians, and then to the Germans, and it obviously followed that what they had given they could again take away. An Italian Pope indeed would have greatly preferred that the Imperial Crown should remain with the Germans, who were growing weaker and weaker, than come into the possession of the French monarchy; but John XXII. and his Cardinals were French in their sympathies.

Lewis of Bavaria, being excommunicated and deposed by the Pope, allied himself with a section of the Franciscans called the "Spirituals," whose history very naturally attracts the attention of Dr. Döllinger, from the curious light it throws on the contemporary estimate of Papal infallibility. The question at issue between the two parties among the Franciscans touched both on faith and morals; it concerned the ideal law of poverty as laid down by Christ and the Apostles as a counsel of perfection, which, according to the "Spirituals," included the renunciation of all property on the part of a religious order corporately, as well as of its individual members. Nicholas III. and Clement V. solemnly confirmed this view in dogmatic Bulls, and as the new orders of Dominicans and Franciscans had been preaching up the idea of the exclusive prerogatives of the Popes as the divinely ordained and infallible representatives of God on earth, they might naturally assume these decisions to be "irreformable." John XXII., however, condemned the doctrine as heresy. It followed on infallibilist principles that he was a heretic himself, and therefore no true Pope, and this was maintained by the "Spiritual" Franciscans, 114 of whom were burnt by the Inquisition, "martyrs for their faith in Papal infallibility," during the next eighty years, besides a large number who suffered imprisonment or died under torture for the same cause. As late as 1449 Nicholas V. had several of them condemned to the stake by the Inquisitor Giacomo della Marca, who expressly assured them that a Pope could teach heresy, only Providence was sure to provide that an heretical Pope should always have an orthodox successor; and this was the official doctrine of the Curia at the time. Two centuries later, in 1654, the Franciscans wanted to have this Giacomo canonized, but the Jesuits had then made Papal infallibility the dominant belief in Southern Europe, and his denial of it was a hindrance. The canonization was therefore deferred; but at last, in 1726, the Franciscans carried their point, when it was urged, in explanation of Giacomo's alleged heterodoxy, that it was not absolutely certain that the book describing his dealings with the condemned Spirituals was written by his own hand! It was thus by a kind of "historical irony" that Lewis became the champion of Papal infallibility, and he failed to observe that he was thereby confirming the principle, so emphatically laid down by Boniface VIII. in the *Unam Sanctam* not long before, of the absolute dominion of the spiritual over the temporal power. He thought he was following the example of the old Christian Emperors, and acting in the spirit of Constantine, Justinian, and Charlemagne, when he declared John XXII. to be a heretic and usurper, on account of his contradicting the doctrinal teaching of his predecessor. But the Pope was too strong for him, and he quailed before the terrible weapons of excommunication and interdict. Hence the treaty of 1333, in which, to gain absolution, he promised

to abdicate in favour of his cousin, Henry of Bavaria, who had in turn engaged to hand over all the disputed territories to the King of France; but this treaty was not carried out. The next year the Pope died, and in 1338 the Electors, under the lead of Archbishop Henry of Mayence, who had for seven years been under excommunication on account of certain money payments, put out the solemn declaration which has no parallel in earlier or later German history, that the Imperial election depended on the majority of votes, and could not be superseded or interfered with by the Pope. This, however, did not help Lewis, who found the successors of John XXII. no less servile in their devotion to the French Court, and in 1343 he made the most humiliating submission to Philip in order to regain their favour; nevertheless he died excommunicated and deposed. Charles of Luxemburg had made larger promises to the Pope, to whom the Spiritual Electors were again become subservient. Lewis had to learn by experience the helplessness of a potentate whose lofty claims had been discredited by the carelessness of his predecessors, the want of competent statesmen, and the constant changes of dynasty, in face of such power as the Papal Curia. He had no written guarantees to show for his rights, while the elaborate code of canon law, strengthened by the skilful forgeries of the past 150 years, was in the hands of his opponents.

Yet at that time the German Church and clergy were unquestionably the wealthiest and most powerful in the world, and the state of things just noticed can only be explained on the assumption that their position was partly matter of indifference, partly in direct hostility to the interests of the Empire and German people. How, it may be asked, was this? In 1288 a German Franciscan had written that the Empire could not sink lower without being destroyed, nor the Papacy rise higher without losing its apostolic character altogether and becoming wholly secularized. He thought the Holy See with the aid of the French might destroy the German Empire, in which case Antichrist would come, and he specified the clergy generally and the French as its most dangerous foes. To understand this we must remember that the Empire was then regarded as the great representative of the lay power, and laity and clergy were supposed to be arrayed in hostility against each other by a kind of natural law. This is assumed as a notorious fact, known from all antiquity, in the famous Bull of Boniface VIII., *Clericis Laicos*, and it passed into a formal principle of canon law, from which the inference was drawn that the clergy must necessarily be exempted from the jurisdiction of the civil courts, where they could not expect fair play. And yet Bishop Alvarus Pelagius, who notes this, in 1328, adds the confession that, on the whole, the laity were superior in morality and piety. A Bavarian theologian had explained, with exquisite naïveté, a century and a half earlier, the ground of chronic hostility between the clergy and the Empire. It was necessary, he considered, that the latter should be split up into small and weak principalities, in order that the clergy, under the shelter of the supreme and divine Papacy, might be secure from all pressure of the secular power.

The causes of the ill success of the Emperor Lewis in his struggle with the Papacy may be illustrated from the very opposite result of the contest carried on not long before between Philip the Fair and Boniface VIII. Philip succeeded to a monarchy whose powers had long been growing and were guaranteed expressly by the French law; Lewis found the Imperial dignity feeble, impoverished, and destitute of all native support, whether in Church or State. Germany had neither politicians, jurists, nor theologians of any mark. On the other hand, the University of Paris was the oracle of Europe, and France was rich in legists, canonists, and divines quite capable of holding their own against the Roman Court. Lewis knew well how to rouse the national feeling of his countrymen, and when they found that the claims put forward by Innocent III. and Boniface VIII. entitled the Popes to interfere at their pleasure in all concerns of public or private life, and reduced the French monarchy to a fief of Rome, the pride of the nation was touched, and they rose up as one man—bishops, priests, and theologians, no less than laymen and legists—to support their King against the inroads of a foreign power. Philip too, like Lewis afterwards, charged the Pope with heresy, though without specifying his particular error, and appealed against him to a future Council; and he had many allies even among the Cardinals in his quarrel with the detested Boniface, whose successor, Clement V., was compelled virtually to revoke the obnoxious Bulls of Boniface. But while Philip came triumphant out of the contest, the ancient Empire may be said to have passed away with Lewis. The Golden Bull of his successor, Charles IV., sealed its fate, and by handing over all real power to the seven Electors, virtually reduced the Emperor to the President of an Assembly. The hereditary principle was restored, for it was no longer worth contesting. And thus, with the exception of the ten years' reign of Rupert, the Luxemburg family continued to reign for ninety years, and when it became extinct with Sigismund, the Hapsburg line regained the throne and held it thenceforth to the end, and in their hands the Empire was simply a means and instrument for the aggrandizement of their own house. Since the seventeenth century their power depended mainly on the non-German portion of their dominions, and in every collision Imperial were subordinated to dynastic interests. "Now," adds the lecturer in conclusion, "we have entered on a new phase. A dynasty ruling a vast kingdom, entirely German, under a common system of government, and embracing half Germany, has succeeded to the Empire. Thereby most of those troubles and hindrances which prevented Germany under her Emperors from attaining to

corporate power and prosperity are removed. One indeed, and one of the worst, is now again in full activity. But yet, without any too great confidence, we may venture to say:—

Magnus ab integro seculorum nascitur ordo."

Considering the interest of the subject, both in its historical and practical aspects, and the high authority of the speaker, we have thought it best to let Dr. Döllinger state his view of it for himself, and have done little more than condense and connect the leading points of his discourse. It will be obvious on the surface that he has spoken, to use his own phrase, "as a prophet looking backwards, to infer the future from the past." But there are few living writers so deeply and familiarly acquainted with the history of the past, and few men of his age who, at the close of a long career, still retain in all its freshness their interest and hope about the future. It is this combination of diverse characteristics which distinguishes his historical researches from dry antiquarianism, and his predictions from the mere enthusiasm of the wish which is father to the thought.

HARVEST PROSPECTS.

IT is reported, and seems to be truly reported, by those who are engaged in manufactures or commerce, that almost every branch of the trade of the country is restricted to small dimensions as to the amount of business transacted, and, as to the profit on what is being done, that there is little or none; and the evidence of this depression is so abundant and universal that, unpleasant as the acknowledgment may be, the fact must be recognized and admitted. Under any circumstances an unproductive harvest makes its influence felt; but in the present condition of trade a bad harvest at home would be a very serious evil, while a bad cereal yield throughout the world would simply be calamitous. A greater anxiety than usual, therefore, prevails on this subject, and although the opinions recorded to-day may have to be materially modified before the end of the month, yet as the sickle is already at work in England, it is not altogether too soon to attempt an estimate of the probable yield of the harvests, both abroad and at home, based on such information as can now be obtained. The difficulty of making a satisfactory estimate, and of arriving at any trustworthy and unimpeachable conclusion, was perhaps never much greater than it is this year; for the accounts of the state of the crops even from the same districts are of the most contradictory character. It is only by a careful selection of the evidence of those whose judgment has been proved to be good by the experience of former years, and by the rejection of that of the over-sanguine or panic-stricken, that any approach to getting at the truth may be hoped for.

It would be impossible, in making a review of the crops, to overlook the importance of the produce of our grass lands in the provision of food, and the more so when the experience of last year has shown us that, at the existing prices of meat—prices which must be called high in comparison with those of past times, but probably will be the current prices of the future—farmers consider that it pays them better to turn the material of which our bread is made into meat than to sell their wheat for conversion into bread at the prices that have been ruling, which have been below the average. In other words, if the grass lands yield badly, and their crops are not sufficient to provide the flocks and herds with abundance of food, farmers, to a certain extent, make up the deficiency in cattle food by the use of wheat. That a large quantity of home-grown wheat was consumed in this way during the last season is certain, but how much was so used is uncertain, and cannot by any means be ascertained. It would be comforting to be assured that no similar need for the use of wheat as cattle food is to be anticipated in the coming season. Last year's crop of hay was very short, and the yield of the pastures was poor, as they were parched by the dry summer. This year the hay crop has been ruined by the rain, for the meadows promised and afforded an excellent crop of grass, but unfortunately it could not be made into hay and gathered. The rains which set in when the grass was fit for the scythe have been continuous, or so nearly continuous, till the last fortnight, that even the most vigorous and energetic farmer has not had a chance to get his crop dried and put under cover. What appears to be a fair calculation is that about one-fourth of the crop was well made and saved; part of the rest that was cut and on the ground was soaked by the rains, and thus damaged and spoilt; that which remained uncut stood so long as to have ripened and shed its seeds, so that even if it be put together in a dry state it will be comparatively worthless as fodder. The artificial grasses in the most important districts were a poor crop, and suffered damage from weather like the natural grasses. The hay crop must be characterized as a bad one—more, however, on account of having been gathered in bad condition than on account of short yield. There is a compensation on the other side of the account—namely, that the pasture lands not used for hay have given, and are still giving, almost a superabundance of keep, though the cattle are said not to thrive on this grass. The ground is so well covered with herbage that it is not likely to be dried up during the autumn, and farmers will be able to save all their resources for the winter. The root crops promise abundance, so that, after all, the loss of the hay crop may not have the serious consequences which imagination may at first sight conjure up. Hay will be dear, especially good, sound, sweet hay, but not, it may be hoped, dearer than last year, because the consumption will not extend over so long a period for stock-feeding purposes, and the roots will in large measure supply its place. The roots promise to yield very heavy crops. The importance of the yield of our grass lands will be recognized when it is remembered

that the last agricultural returns show that about two-thirds of the whole cultivated surface of the United Kingdom is occupied by grass in some shape.

That the wheat crop always succeeds in a dry summer in this country is a statement so near to the truth that it has been received as an axiom, and it is certain that in our climate the wheat plant has never perished from drought. The possibility of a failure in a hot summer consists in there not being "a plant" on the ground in spring. Sunshine cannot make wheat grow where no plants exist; but if there be "a plant" there cannot be too much sun. If the converse proposition were true, that wheat always fails in a wet summer, we should have but a sorry account to render of the crop this year. Again, an early crop is generally a good one, and good because it is early, and has been forced on by hot sunshine; a late crop is seldom good, because it has lacked warmth, and the perils of ingathering are increased with every week's delay. This year the crop is late. Hardly a sheaf was cut in July, while last year harvest commenced in the middle of that month, and supplies of new wheats reached the markets before the month was out; so that the general character of the season, and the backwardness of the harvest, are unfavourable to the expectation of a good crop. The untimely and violent rains which visited the south and midland districts of England in the middle of July undoubtedly did a certain amount of damage, but it is well to consider what the crop was likely to have been apart from that visitation. A careful consideration of reports from all quarters leads us to this general conclusion; that on the light lands, the chalks, the heaths, and the sands, the plant though tolerably regular was thin, and would have yielded certainly less than last year, probably very much less, and possibly—indeed in many districts almost certainly—less than an average crop. On the contrary, on the heavy lands the prospects were excellent; the heavy clays, the loams, and the black fen lands were covered by a crop thick in plant, with stiff healthy straw and well-formed ears which were filling well, and there was every prospect of their yielding a heavy crop of good corn. The superabundance of the heavy lands would have in all probability more than compensated for any deficiency of the light lands, and the result would have been at any rate a crop fully up to an average, and possibly exceeding an average. This was the state of affairs when the rain came, and it is manifest that rain so violent must have done mischief. During its continuance, and until a few days' sunshine had enabled people to recover from the panic into which they had not unnaturally fallen, the most exaggerated accounts of damage done were circulated and believed. It seemed to be forgotten that the grain had passed the critical stage of formation, that the heads were nearly filled, and that the ripening process had not commenced; that the straw was still green and elastic, and that the crop was just in the stage when such weather, injurious as it was, would do least harm. As was to have been expected, the period of warmth which followed the rain has put altogether a more cheerful aspect on the state of affairs; and from some districts it is reported that the crop has received no injury by the wet, or that the fields which had been "laid" by the storms have recovered themselves, and that the crops are again upright. From others we hear that, though the colour of the straw and chaff has been affected, yet the grain appears to be ripening well. Other reports say that rust and mildew have been developed, and that deterioration of the corn will be the consequence; while the worst accounts come from districts where the crops were not only "laid" but were also twisted, and where they remain still on the ground in a state of entanglement. Happily, however, a very small area is in this deplorable condition. The problem to be solved is the determination of the proportion which will have to be deducted from the entire crop on account of these various damages. We have estimated the crop, as it stood a month ago, as promising a full average or perhaps somewhat more than an average yield. We believe the damage done by the rain, though considerable, not to be very serious, and that with a continuance of fine weather the result will be found to be a yield somewhat, but not much, less than an average. The effect of the rain we estimate to be the conversion of a crop slightly over an average into one slightly under an average. But it must be borne in mind that the plant is no longer in a sufficiently vigorous condition to be able to resist untoward weather, and that more rain would place it in a position of great jeopardy. Not only on the ground of quantity, but also in order that the corn may be garnered in a dry and available state, it is much to be desired that unbroken fine weather should continue.

Little is yet known of the yield in other countries of the world, but the harvests of the Northern hemisphere are sufficiently advanced for us to know that there will be no competition with our merchants for the supplies which foreign markets can afford. France seems to be better satisfied with her crop now that it is cut than when it was standing in the fields; and although it is by no means a good crop, yet, added to the large surplus which remains to her of last year's wheat, she is well provided for. She is not likely therefore to intercept any of the supplies destined for this country. It is at all times difficult to obtain trustworthy information from the immense territory of Russia, but if the crops suffer from drought or rain in one part, they are almost sure to be good in another, so that we may depend upon that country for a large supply. Some quantity of wheat is on its way from India and from Australia, and Egypt will send us corn this year, and Germany will help us. America has been shipping very largely for the last year or two; this year her surplus for export from the Pacific will not be so great, it is said, and the winter

wheat crop on the Atlantic side is poor; the spring wheat crop is very highly spoken of, though this week's telegrams report rains during the harvest. There is little doubt but that the recent advance in prices will attract to our shores ample supplies to supplement any deficiencies in our crop, should it suffer no further injuries. Potatoes, which when cheap extensively take the place of bread, will yield an immense crop, but unfortunately much of it has been already rendered useless by the disease. If August be a fine warm month, it may be expected that, although bread will be dearer for the coming year than it has been during the last cereal year, yet it will not exceed by much, if at all, the present moderate price. A wet August would place us at the mercy of speculators and the foreign producer. Horsekeepers will again have heavy fodder bills, for, as we have seen, hay is likely to be dear, and there is no substitute for it in horse feeding, and oats will be a poor crop. Barley was largely planted, as the high prices of last year, when fine barley was dearer than wheat, make it a most remunerative crop; the crop is a heavy one, but the quality will be very variable, for it suffered more than the wheat from the rain, and in too many cases the grasses and clovers that are planted with it have grown through the barley and smothered it. But on account of the large growth brewers may expect to buy it at less than the prices current in the past season.

ARTISAN COOKERY AT SOUTH KENSINGTON.

A GREAT many conscientious people are oppressed with an idea that they should give alms of all they possess. Those who have great possessions must sometimes be puzzled to know how to spend their tithe. Even clergymen nowadays utter warnings against almsgiving. Pauperism must not be encouraged. The independence of the labouring classes must not be destroyed. It would, however, be difficult to destroy what never existed; and some charitably disposed persons will continue to be thankful whenever they take their walks abroad and see so many poor. A ready response is made to the annual appeals for a "Day in the Country." Why should not some wealthy and benevolent person take a party of East-end housewives or a few hundred general servants to spend a Saturday morning at the South Kensington School for Cookery? We are almost sure they would enjoy eating a dinner they had seen prepared. They could not possibly go away unimpressed with the fact that there is a right and a wrong way of doing everything. They would be obliged to own that the materials used were easily within their reach, and that good cooking does not cost more than bad cooking. This alone would be a great benefit, not only to those who were taken to South Kensington, but to all the neighbours who would hear from the excursionists what they had seen. Books of recipes, however simple, are not of much use to the labouring poor; but to see things properly done, and then to taste how good they are, would perhaps encourage them to try and learn how to make a few savoury dishes, and would no doubt do something towards keeping the husbands from the gin-shop. Wholesome food for children who are to become the bone and sinew of the nation is a matter of no mean importance. We cordially welcome every effort to help the working classes to make the most of the materials they now ignorantly waste. We have heard with pleasure that a lady who has had much experience amongst the poor, and who is well acquainted with cookery in all its branches, proposes shortly to start a training kitchen at Westminster. She is going through the course at South Kensington so as to take out a diploma. Her object is partly to educate the future wives of artisans, but specially, we are glad to say, to try to increase the supply of cooks suitable for families of limited incomes or for lodging-houses. Each class will consist of not more than ten pupils. The course of training will require three months. The cost for each pupil will be a shilling a day, but this charge will include a dinner. Only the most ordinary utensils will be used, and the fireplaces are to be of the most primitive kind. Every pupil is to be taught to lay a table and to wait in the simple way required from a general servant. She must also learn to carve. A few tickets at half price will be issued to those who only wish to look on. The Poor Law Board of Guardians seem willing to help the scheme, and as the promoter has already trained some good servants, it promises well. Another lady, Mrs. Catherine Buckton, gave in Leeds during last winter some admirable lectures to the elder boys and girls in the Board schools. They have since been printed under the title *Health in the House* (Longmans), and would be found invaluable in the village lending library. The children were not required to attend the lectures, as they were given after school hours; but the class averaged fifty, and the teaching seems to have been thoroughly enjoyed. Mrs. Buckton's lessons on cooking were excellent, and she gave clear sensible reasons for everything she taught. One great merit of the book is the simple language in which it is written. Mrs. Buckton tells of giving other lectures at Saltaire to audiences of several hundreds, all working-women and their daughters. We wish she could teach the authorities at South Kensington the secret of making their institution equally popular. At present it is most discouraging to see the small number of pupils and the rows of empty chairs which ought to be filled with spectators. The teaching is excellent, and the same staff which is required to instruct twelve pupils could almost as easily instruct a hundred. The number of lookers-on need only be limited by the size of the room. The institution will never be a real

success until it is self-supporting. It is not here necessary to enter into details about the arrangements with regard to different classes, nor to review the results of the efforts made last year to encourage ladies to treat cookery as a fine art. We do not anticipate much success for the school in that direction, and only direct attention to it now as a means of diffusing amongst the working classes a knowledge of the elementary rules of preparing wholesome food. A demonstration lesson is given every day. On Saturday morning it lasts three hours instead of two, so that the pupils have time to see most of the dishes completed, and to taste of them afterwards. The room is the same as that used by Mr. Buckmaster last year, but it has been purified from the flavour of quackery which then pervaded it. Texts and high moral sentiments are not now interlarded with directions as to the proper way to peel onions; nor is the audience informed that there ought to be a "Potiphar" in every house. The *pot au feu* still retains its place of honour in the lessons, as does also the "bokay" of dried herbs upon which Mr. Buckmaster used to wax eloquent. Questions are quietly and kindly answered by people who understand what they are talking about. If a good suggestion is made by a visitor, it is gladly adopted. Any one by giving his or her card can see the pupils at work in the practice kitchen, and examine the dishes which have been cooked.

If we go through the programme of one Saturday morning it will be seen how many useful dishes can be prepared before the eyes of the pupils during even one lesson. It must be borne in mind that artisan cookery is being taught, not cookery as a fine art. The materials to be used are placed upon a table which runs the whole length of the room. In it are inserted two gas stoves. At each of these stoves a teacher presides. Nothing but common utensils are employed. In the background is an open range and a gas oven. On a black board is written the programme for the day. The subjects of the "demonstration" consist of a tin of Australian rabbit, one of beef, and one of curried minced meat. A fresh beefsteak lies ready for stewing with its accompanying vegetables alongside. Eggs, flour, oil, vinegar, and other condiments are grouped at intervals. Everything is the perfection of cleanliness. There are no unpleasant smells, for the demonstrators are handy and do not spill the things, and are careful to regulate the heat applied so that the saucers do not boil over. They economize their time, and whilst one thing is stewing another dish is fried or a pudding made. The lesson begins by some batter being mixed for pancakes and put aside to swell. Then flour and dripping are rubbed into a paste to cover the rabbit pie, which, when finished, is put into the oven. Some more paste, slightly different, is made into rissole cases and filled with the spiced mincemeat. The beefsteak is next discoursed upon, and the difference between boiling and stewing lucidly explained. An ox-cheek is prepared and part put into a bowl, the rest being retained for soup. What was made the day before, being now stiff, is turned out of its shape, to be admired in all its glory of rich brown jelly and to show what the dish should look like when finished. Then comes a concoction which in England is called Irish stew. It resembles the native dish about as nearly as coffee at a railway-station here resembles coffee at Constantinople. Irish stew ought to be composed of layers of meat and raw potatoes, well seasoned with pepper, salt, and finely minced onions. It should not be stirred until it is ready to serve, and it ought not to contain any gravy. It is best when it partly consists of roast mutton or beef bones. However, this is a matter of small moment. The mess made of mutton boiled in one pot and potatoes stewed in another is no doubt nutritious, economical, and wholesome, but Paddy could not cook it because it requires two saucers, and it is not Irish stew. An excellent and most ornamental salad is now prepared of Australian beef. It is destined for the ladies employed in the school of art needlework. They have petitioned the authorities to allow them to buy their luncheon from the practice kitchen, and it seems a capital plan for all parties. Frying them commences, and is fully explained in all its intricacies. Sausages are done at one heat, potato chips at another, and the reasons are demonstrated. Savoury and cheese omelettes next occupy the stage. They are not so good as they used to be last year, when they were mixed in a larger pan and dexterously manipulated so as to be lightly done throughout, yet quite set. In the smaller pan the omelette is not so evenly cooked, and is hard in parts. Still, these are French omelettes, not English ones, and the present teaching is more easy to follow.

During all these processes the pupils, most of whom are preparing to become teachers elsewhere, are taking notes. They are supposed to be conversant with the ordinary principles of cooking. In order to get a diploma they are obliged to pass an examination. Some of the questions propounded last year we should not like to be obliged to answer without a little preliminary cramming. "What are the requisites of a perfect diet?" "State the analysis of a potato, a mackerel, and a mutton chop." "Describe generally the nature of the Food Collection at the Bethnal Green Museum"—are questions which require a little consideration. It might not be a bad plan to supplement the paper work by dinners given to the examiners entirely prepared by the candidates for diplomas. It is possible to be perfectly acquainted with the contents of a food museum, and yet not be able to boil a potato. It is much easier to answer questions as to how paste ought to be rolled than to make a light puff. The recipe for a *soufflé* can be committed to memory, but the successful production of the dish is quite another matter. There seems to be a feeling amongst the pupils that they should not be obliged to go through the pre-

liminary class for cleaning. To judge by the way we saw a student scour an unfortunate kitchen table, teaching in this department is far from unnecessary. It is well to learn not to leave the scrubbing-brush soaking in the hot water, to wring a flannel properly, use the sand neatly, and finish the operation without being drenched with soapsuds. We do not prophesy success to the mistresses who cannot demonstrate to their pupils how to clean a saucers as well as how to make a sauce.

We believe the authorities at South Kensington intend to start branch establishments in more accessible places than Exhibition Road. These branches when opened ought to be made widely known. A class to which penny tickets would admit might not be a bad plan. Many a poor woman who could not spare an hour for instruction, nor pay sixpence, could spend a penny, and devote ten minutes to learning how to do one simple dish. A great deal of our pauperism is caused by the lethargy arising from want of nourishing food, and the languor produced by breathing impure air. To procure a milk diet for the children of artisans would do more towards checking crime than all our reformatory, and hundreds of men would return to their homes sober instead of drunk if they knew that a well-cooked supper awaited them.

STRAY THOUGHTS IN NORTH-EASTERN CHURCHES.

P

ERHAPS the truest test either of a designer or a describer of churches is the power at once to hit off the essential differences in the character of churches designed for different purposes. We sometimes see a laborious *cicerone* personally conducting his party over an ancient building, pointing out, perhaps accurately enough, the dates of its different parts, yet seeming utterly unable to grasp those features which give the church its really distinctive character. He knows perhaps the bare fact that one church is a Benedictine, another a Cistercian, minster; one a church of secular canons, another of Franciscan friars, another the chapel of a college or hospital, another simply a parish church. We are not speaking of people who cannot be got to see any difference between monks and canons, nor of people who are surprised to hear that there were any parish churches in Popish times. We are speaking of people who know their details and dates, but who simply miss all that gives artistic life or historical interest to the thing which they are talking about. And, as it is with the describer, so is it with the designer. An architect is called on to design a cathedral or monastic church; all that he turns out is a big parish church. This happened in a good many cases to the elder Pugin. On the other hand, it far more commonly happens that the builder or restorer of a small parish church will drag in, for the sake of supposed ornament or supposed greater dignity of outline, features which are utterly out of place except in a church of ten times the scale. And yet it must be always borne in mind that the difference between the minster and the small church is not merely a difference of scale. The complete effect of the great church may be had on the scale of the small one, a fact which perhaps English experience would hardly suggest, but which is plain to every one who remembers Norrey near Caen and the Lesser Andelys near Château Guillard. Of the other case, that of the church of the purely parochial type rivalling the mere scale of the minster, England will naturally supply the best examples, as it is England alone which has developed a strictly parochial type of church, quite distinct from the type of the minster. And yet in many of our greatest parish churches we cannot help wishing that the other type had been followed; the purely parochial type does not seem to suit a building of a very great scale. And in the greatest parish churches, even when nothing is wanting in point of mere detail and workmanship, there is constantly a lack of strictly artistic design which unpleasantly strikes the critical eye. Take Boston for instance; the outside is perfect; the whole design of nave and aisles, choir and western tower, with the famous lantern, fits in with admirable harmony. The detail is excellent throughout, and everything fits into everything else in a way that leaves nothing to be desired. One is perhaps tempted to wish that so great a building had followed the type of the cross church with the central tower; the scale seems almost too vast for so simple a ground plan; still the building is, except perhaps some of the windows of the tower, an absolutely perfect carrying out of its own idea.

It is instructive to compare such a church as this, so admirably planned and executed, with the utter lack of design in another huge parish church, that of St. Nicolas at Newcastle-upon-Tyne. Here the building is vast indeed, but it is low, broad, sprawling, with no design and no detail; the meanest and rudest village church is more pleasing. Its shapeless, straggling nave, transepts, and choir, are as inferior to the vast, yet compact, design of Boston, as the boasted crown, the flying spire, of Newcastle is to St. Botolph's wondrous octagon. Between these two last the difference is that between real art, the production of something beautiful, and the mere vanquishing of a mechanical difficulty, the production of something strange. But, if we enter the church at Boston, the difference between the two, though still considerable, is greatly lessened. Boston, at its worst, is not so mean and flat and meagre as Newcastle; still the disappointment which is felt on setting foot within the building is not small. The outside leads us to look for so much, and we find so very little. We should almost counsel a visitor to Boston, who went simply to please his artistic taste and had no care for the local history, to study the

outside of the church in the minutest detail, but not to go inside at all. It is strange that, where there is so much design without, there should be so little within. The outside makes us hope, if not for an arcade, triforium, clerestory, and vault, which the date and style of the church makes hardly likely, yet at least for an arcade, clerestory, and timber roof, all artistically designed and carefully fitted into one another, such as may be seen in many churches both in Somerset and East-Anglia of much less pretension than Boston. For part of what we see instead of it, namely for the very unsuccessful attempt at a timber vault, the original architect is not responsible, as the former roof of the church was of quite another kind. But he is responsible for the general proportion, or rather disproportion, of building, for the painful effect of breadth and lowness, and for the lack of any artistic unity between the arcade and the clerestory which it supports. It may seem strange that builders who were capable of so much without should be capable of so little within; but the thing is really not very wonderful; it is the inside which really tests the skill of the designer of a church on the purely parochial plan. A minster and a great parish church may differ widely in ground-plan, and therefore in outline; but there need not be any great difference in the external design of the nave, aisles, and clerestory. The body of Boston Church might, as it stands, be the body of a cathedral or monastic church. It is the single western tower, the lack of transepts, the lack of aisles to the choir, which in England stamp it—in Germany or Aquitaine they would not necessarily stamp it—as purely parochial. The difficulty is inside. How are the simple elements of the arcade and clerestory without triforium or vaulted roof to be wrought into a really artistic design? The means are very simple; but just because they are so simple they are less obvious. A string between the arches and the clerestory, a shaft rising from the pillar to the roof, will do the work; further enrichments are enrichments, but not matters of necessity. This easy difference between design and lack of design was, one would have thought, within the reach of every builder of every age. It is wonderful that such simple means have been so often neglected.

We may turn from Boston to another great parish church in the same shire, which is really more satisfactory as a whole, because it is in many points very inferior. This is the church of St. Wulfran at Grantham. Between the spire of Grantham and the octagon of Boston it is a fair question of taste; only the Boston tower has the great advantage of standing clear from the ground, while that of Grantham is entangled in the aisles. The attempt to combine a lofty western tower with anything in the shape of a west front can hardly ever be successful. Outside, Grantham cannot for a moment be compared to Boston. The nave and aisles of Grantham could never be the nave and aisles of a minster. They have not even a clerestory. But for that very reason the whole church is more satisfactory. The outside does not raise expectations which the inside disappoints. Inside and outside agree well together. They form together a grand building of its own kind; a church of an inferior type, but one which is far from lacking its stateliness. But Grantham, unlike Boston, shows us that the church as it now stands has been made by a strange transmutation of an earlier church, smaller in scale, but of an essentially higher type. The later and loftier arches rise from the admirably graceful piers of a nave of the latest Romanesque, whose round arches and clerestory must have formed a noble range, and which can hardly fail to have been a cross church with a central tower. All this has given way to the extreme parochial type of a nave without a clerestory, and with aisles of enormous width. We are tempted artistically to regret the change. From another point of view, Grantham is a striking instance of the skill with which mediæval architects could change a building of one type into a building of a wholly different type, and could bring out of the change something which, to say the least, is good in its own kind. To pass into another shire, the same kind of disappointment which is felt on entering the church of Boston is felt on entering the church of St. Mary at Beverley. It was going too far when the author of the description of Beverley in the York volume of the Archaeological Institute pronounced St. Mary's to be almost a rival to the neighbouring minster of St. John's. Yet the idea might present itself for a moment when looking at St. Mary's from the southwest. Beverley minster suffers so sadly from the lack of its central tower that the general outline of St. Mary's, far smaller as is its scale, is really more satisfactory. Seen from outside, it has perfectly the air of a minster of the second rank. The architect has achieved the difficult task of making an artistic west front out of the ends of the nave and aisles without either towers or any extraneous device. The nave and aisles would quite rank with those of some of our smaller cathedral and monastic churches, and, if the rest of the church is not quite on the same level, it is not so markedly inferior to it as to make any very jarring contrast. Go inside, and the disappointment is nearly as great as the disappointment on entering Boston. To the purely artistic feeling it is perhaps quite as great; only it is lessened by there being so much more architectural history than there is at Boston. We can hardly complain that the two sides of the choir do not agree, when we see the same thing in the great nave of Selby, and, to some extent, in the neighbouring minster itself; but we are disappointed when we find that the nave which looks so perfect without has no more artistic design within than Boston itself. We go out comforting ourselves with the purely antiquarian comfort, that nowhere is there to be found a more instructive case of the way in which old work could be used up again than in the transepts of St. Mary's, Beverley.

The distinction between the two types of English churches—we

say English, because the strictly parochial type is hardly to be found out of England—is more easily felt than put into words. It needs some artistic perception thoroughly to enter into it. It is for this reason that many people fail to catch it, that many professed expounders of such matters go fumbling about amid a mass of detail, without ever catching the points which give life and meaning to the thing which they are talking about. It is because mediæval architecture has so often fallen into the hands of men who are quite incapable of entering into its artistic or historical spirit, that the study of mediæval architecture has often become a subject of ridicule. Some lines which have been lately quoted in two or three newspapers and magazines show how one branch of historical study has come to look in some eyes. The joke is to talk about a church

furnished with mullion and gable,
With altar and reredos, with gargoyle and groin.

That is to say, the writer of this silly stuff has no notion what mullions and gables, gargoyle and groins, are. Any mason could tell him better; but he clearly thinks that they are something of the nature of an altar or a reredos, something which has to do with religious worship, seemingly with some particular form of religious worship. That all these things are just as likely to be met with in a house, a castle, a town-hall, a Jew's synagogue, as they are in a church—that a barn, above all, in any age or style, though it need not have groins or gargoyle, can hardly be built without gables—would be news to such a one. It never came into his head that he was ignorantly mocking at a subject of study which, when treated as it ought to be treated, may claim its place alongside of the study of any other form of art, poetry, or history. But when the verse-maker goes on to talk about "Lucifer flying from Hades," we see that his theology and his Greek are much on a level with his architecture. We see that there still are people who believe that the song of Hebrew triumph over the fall of Babylon has something to do with the devil. The details of ancient English art may perhaps survive being mocked at by one who cannot distinguish Hades from Gehenna.

THE LATE MUNICIPAL FESTIVITIES.

IT was an ambitious idea, even for a Lord Mayor of London, to offer a series of municipal entertainments to the civic dignitaries of the world in general. It may have been that, in his desire to make his entertainments thoroughly cosmopolitan, he issued his invitations somewhat promiscuously, and it certainly was assuming a good deal to take it as probable that citizens in business would cross oceans or continents, with their wives, to come to England for a dinner and a crowded dance. In spite of telegraph wires and lines of swift steamers, America is still a long way off, as the chief magistrate of Philadelphia hinted in his telegram, when he observed that the Centennial Exhibition would be well worth making a journey for. We can imagine the amazement with which the invitation must have been received by many quiet-going burghers in distant Continental cities, whose holiday trips have been confined to their own immediate neighbourhoods, and who have seldom crossed the frontiers of their own countries. Yet quite enough of distinguished foreigners responded in person to the cards circulated from the Mansion House to absolve the representative of our civic traditions from any imputation of indiscretion, and the assemblage was sufficiently characteristic to make the Lord Mayor's idea a success. Of course we had the Prefect of the Seine, the guest whom, after all, we chiefly intended to honour, and, doubtless, before the rest of the programme was made public, his coming had been made matter of special arrangement. He was accompanied by his scarcely less distinguished colleague the Prefect of Police, who directs those mysterious forces of the Rue Jérusalem whose prestige even exceeds their unmistakable efficiency, and by the Colonel of those superb veterans the Sapeurs-Pompiers of Paris, who are at once the sport and admiration of the light-hearted populace. There was the Burgomaster of Brussels, whose name should be familiar enough to readers of the *Indépendance Belge*, to acknowledge in glowing terms the standing debt of gratitude for favours past, present, and future which Belgium is never slow to acknowledge; and there was the Burgomaster of that flourishing seaport of Antwerp whose independence egotistical Albion is confessed to have dearly at heart. Besides these, those States of the second or third order which pride themselves on the freedom of their municipal institutions were more than respectfully represented. Holland, the Swiss Cantons, and Sweden, all sent delegates of mark; so did the present and recent capitals of the new kingdom of Italy. If the chiefs of Town Councils from cities in the three great military Empires of Central and Eastern Europe were conspicuous by their absence, there were obvious reasons for it besides the plausible apology of distance. The Free Towns of Germany and the former Hanseatic League can scarcely congratulate themselves without reserve on the recent changes that have consolidated the Fatherland at the cost of local privileges and charters which have been treasured from time immemorial; while the magistrates of Vienna and Pesth, St. Petersburg and Moscow, are still held in leading-strings, though allowed considerably more line than formerly. It might have been embarrassing for them to listen to speeches about liberty that would only serve to remind them of their own disabilities.

We may trust, however, that the guests who did come have

carried away favourable impressions of us. The entertainments were perhaps as varied as was to be expected, and the Guildhall dinner, which was the grand central feature of the whole thing, was undoubtedly highly creditable of its kind. We may denounce the rudeness of our English cookery, and may draw comparisons decidedly to our disadvantage with such banquets as those which M. Haussmann and his successors used to spread in the halls of the destroyed Hôtel de Ville during the palmy days of the departed Empire. We have no purpose of contesting the incontestable supremacy of the French school in its aesthetic variety of conception and its artistic refinements of execution. But its very refinement is a drawback when catering must be conducted on an extensive scale, admirably fitted as it may be to the *petit souper* or *diner*. It is impossible to do justice to delicate *vol au vent* to be served by the gross, or to the fugitive essences of the scores of *suprêmes* that should be sent up to the instant. The delicate sauces have time to curdle, and you detect traces of haste and smoke in the seasonings of the fillets and cutlets. Even the broad simplicity of a grand English repast must suffer where there is a multitude of tables and guests, but not to anything like the same extent. Turtle is the better for being cooked in Broddingnagian cauldrons, and the fat and fins will preserve their calorific for any reasonable time, especially in London in the dog-days. Monster salmon sent up in ice-boxes from the Tweed or Tay are not appreciably the worse for a day or two's keeping. With the prize turbot that has been the cynosure of admiring eyes on City fish-slabs, they may be hurried to table in their original proportions from the fish-kettle, and set down steaming before the guests. So with the haunches of venison; the slices need lose little of the flavour if plates of the precious metals have only been duly warmed. As for the quails and the ducklings, and such small deer, they must take their chance. They are unconsidered trifles thrown in by way of interlude, and are only introduced incidentally in the general scheme. Such a bill of fare is in happy harmony with the credit and traditions of a city which is, after all, the wealthiest in the world. It is rich, solid, and substantial rather than showy and fantastic, like the plate that glitters on the tables and buffets. Given all that, together with a profusion of flowers and fruits by way of lighter sacrifice to the graces, with an appropriate variety of wines that combine the old-fashioned elements of cobwebs and beeswing, with concessions to the fancies of more modern fashion, with an ancient dining-hall and mediæval ceremonies, and with hosts who set a hospitable example of hearty enjoyment of the great business of the hour, and the guests are likely to find the atmosphere of good-fellowship contagious, and to carry away agreeable recollections of an evening that has much of novelty to most of them. The speech-making, too, is less of a drawback on these international occasions than is often the case. In the first place, the Lord Mayor is sure to have secured some of the few distinguished Englishmen who have the gift of speaking. In the next place, the orations being delivered in a foreign tongue, our visitors may listen to them with the greater complacency since they make no demand on the attention. And lastly, as most public men from the Continent have the power of expressing themselves fluently, and are seldom troubled with *mauvaise honte*, they find positive pleasure, instead of pain, in discharging their own share of the duty.

It was of course indispensable to the thing going off well that the mere eating and drinking in solemn civic state should be such as to do the City no discredit. But we may add, without laying ourselves open to the charge of vanity, that there are plenty of objects of interest in London for the entertainment of our foreign friends, especially when they happen to be strangers as well as foreigners. It is true that ours is in no sense an ornamental capital, and those measures of municipal legislation over which we have so long been hesitating show that its internal administration leaves a great deal to desire. But even from the ornamental point of view, we have been doing more of late years than prejudiced home critics are always willing to admit; and we are informed that the Prefects of the Seine and of the Parisian police have carried back for their own use at home some serviceable hints from corresponding departments in London. But what we have to show, beyond all dispute, is the wealthiest and most flourishing city in the world, though parts of its revenues may be wasted or misappropriated; a vast extent of acreage densely covered with brick and mortar that can only be even dimly realized by some superficial personal inspection; and such a collection of shipping as is to be witnessed nowhere else in what would be the heart of any capital that had not overgrown itself to the distortion of its normal proportions. Above all, there are the endless crowds that swarm along interminable thoroughfares, whose very side streets are teeming with busy industry, till the traffic choked in its own excess of activity. There is a telling effect enough at the Crystal Palace or the rival edifice on Muswell Hill, when the Directors have advertised a grand gala day, and well-dressed crowds are mobbing distinguished strangers. But spectacles of this sort, where the sightseers themselves contribute the chief attraction, are common enough everywhere, and are more effectively managed abroad. It is the spectacle of our every-day London itself that is unique, and not to be matched anywhere in the world. Paris, perhaps, comes nearest to it in Europe, but the grandeur of Paris is of a different kind altogether. By comparison it is dwarfed altogether, and shrinks into something commonplace. The Arch of Triumph, in the most fashionable quarter, stands to all intents and purposes out in the country. Ascend it and you have a clear view in all directions over the city that lies gathered

in at your feet. The rarity of manufacturing chimneys may be agreeable from the sanitary and æsthetic points of view, but it indicates a comparative stagnation of which the negative signs are conspicuous everywhere. The people in all the *arrondissements* are taking life more or less easily; you are most likely to find your movements embarrassed among the idlers and pleasure-seekers who frequent the boulevards; the Place de la Bourse, with its scattered knots of speculators, seems crowded by comparison with everything else. There are no docks, no shipping, no sea-going population—nothing but some barges and *bateaux mouches*; for the port of the capital is 142 miles away at Havre. But Paris is a miracle of size and life compared to any other city that was represented here last week. Cheerful little Brussels is only Paris in miniature. The trade of Antwerp might be compressed into one of our docks. Geneva, bright, compact, and bustling, is not so much given over to business as ever to soil its clean face and clean fingers. Florence, after being woken up by the passing visit of the Government, is relapsing again into her former attitude of artistic languor; and Rome, among her crumbling ruins and her deadly Campagna, is still living on the memories of the past rather than in the prospects of her reviving future. London, with all its eyesores and miseries, with its extremes of vulgar wealth and abject poverty, is still the greatest triumph of indefatigable energy, liberal institutions, expanding ideas, and advancing civilization that the Old World has to show. Advisedly we say nothing of the other hemisphere, because we do not wish to provoke invidious comparisons with the rapid development of boastful young capitals like New York. We are in the habit of abusing London freely, and we have no difficulty in finding themes for abuse. Yet we should never have made it the town it is did we not regard it at bottom with a certain complacent admiration, and we are content that intelligent foreigners should examine it carefully, and form their own impressions. Although the features which we are ashamed of will no doubt strike them forcibly, we may be sure they will see much to admire.

POSTAL TELEGRAPHHS.

IT is calculated that for the current financial year the expenditure on the Post Office Telegraphic Service will exceed the revenue by nearly 270,000*l.*, and dissatisfaction is naturally expressed at a result very different from that which was promised when the Post Office took over this business from private Companies. Mr. Scudamore, who very lately was Secretary to the Post Office, reported in 1871 that "the financial results of the completed scheme would be not less favourable than those which he had all along predicted for it." He had confidently supported the uniform rate of 1*s.* in 1868, when the Telegraph Act of that year was before a Parliamentary Committee, and had even expressed his belief that we should come to a sixpenny rate in a few years. There has been an enormous increase in telegraphic business since that time, but unfortunately working expenses have increased also, until they threaten to equal and even to exceed the receipts, leaving nothing to pay the interest on the capital borrowed for the acquisition of the telegraphs, or for the gradual reduction of the debt. This result is deduced in a Report lately presented to the Treasury by a Committee appointed by it to investigate the subject, and although the Report makes certain suggestions for improvement, we cannot regard them as particularly hopeful. Unfortunately the public has now grown habituated to telegraphic facilities, and the withdrawal of them would be resented even by those who make small use of them.

We learn from this Report that the actual number of words contained in every message for which one shilling is paid averages forty-three, the additional words in excess of twenty being made up of the words contained in the names and addresses of senders and receivers, which are not charged for, and the words sent with each message which comprise the service instructions stated to be necessary for proper departmental control. The average number of words in these "service instructions" is put at fourteen; the addresses of sender and receiver make together twelve words; and, allowing for the message seventeen words, we get the average total of forty-three words. The statement that the "service instructions" for a message extend to fourteen words is surprising and almost incredible, and we are glad to find that Mr. Weaver, an experienced member of the Commission, thinks that this number may be considerably reduced. If a message has to be sent, say from Birmingham to Liverpool, the clerk at Birmingham must first let each of the offices which may be connected with the wire from Birmingham to Liverpool know that he wants to send a message to Liverpool, and not to any other office on the line. He must therefore proceed to signal the name of the office to which the message is going. It is not, however, necessary to signal the names of offices at full length; a code has been compiled by which an abbreviated name, consisting of two or three letters, has been given to every postal telegraph office. In this code "BM" stands for Birmingham, and "LV" stands for Liverpool. Having gained the attention of the office to which the message is to be sent, the sending-clerk must send the signals representing what is called the prefix of the message. This prefix is intended to show the receiving-clerk what sort of message is coming to him; whether, for example, the message is to be delivered from his office, or to be transmitted by wire to another office. But this information is conveyed by a single letter. The sending-clerk then sends the time of receipt of

message, which may usually be done by three letters, and then he informs the receiving-clerk of the number of words which he is about to send. This is the sort of thing which we suppose is meant by "service instructions," but it is difficult to believe that they can extend to fourteen words. Abbreviations are used for almost all expressions that occur frequently. Thus, "M Q" means "engaged with another circuit," and "K Q" means "say when you are ready," and so on. However, we may suppose that "service instructions," whether by words at length or abbreviated signals, will be reduced in number as far as may be consistent with efficiency. Mr. Weaver's next proposal is that the names and addresses of sender and receiver should be charged for, and he would charge either sixpence for ten words, or a penny for every word sent. Thus, except the "service instructions," nothing would be sent that was not paid for, and the Committee think that either of these changes must result in an increase of revenue, allowing reasonable time for development of traffic.

It is unsatisfactory to find such considerable changes proposed within a few years after the establishment of the system. When Mr. Scudamore looked forward to the introduction of a sixpenny rate, he certainly did not contemplate that this would be proposed because a shilling rate was not found to pay. And, again, Mr. Scudamore considered in 1868 that it would be necessary to give the address, because that was practically given at that time, meaning by the Companies, and "we could not withdraw it." Yet now it is proposed to charge for the address; and something must be done, unless Parliament is willing to subsidize the telegraphic service to the amount of 200,000*l.* or 300,000*l.* annually. It was hoped that telegraphic business would be profitable because the proper business of the Post Office had been profitable; but in the latter case it was possible to increase business without largely increasing working expenses, and in the former case this has not been found possible. A wire can only transmit a certain number of words in an hour; and as there is a limit beyond which messages cannot properly be delayed, it follows that, as business increases, a second or third wire must be provided. The Committee state that the press tariff charged, in accordance with the Telegraph Act of 1868, is "another fruitful source of loss." One shilling is charged for every 100 words transmitted during the night, and the same sum for every 75 words transmitted during the day, two-pence only in addition being charged for the same matter forwarded to different addresses. "The consequences of such a system must be obvious to every inquirer." At extraordinary times the wires are absolutely flooded with this most unremunerative traffic, or, in other words, the country pays for transmitting intelligence to newspapers. Perhaps the country may think this worth while, but the country ought at least to know what it is doing. Nearly ten millions sterling have been sunk in the purchase of telegraphic undertakings, and at present there is no prospect of getting any interest upon this money. The country may be willing to forego this interest; but if it be not, some alteration must be made in the present rate of charge for transmitting messages.

An obvious difference between the system of the Post Office and that of the Companies is this, that the former only maintained establishments which were expected to pay, while the Post Office has an establishment in every post town. This Report notices that the salaries of all the officials of the Telegraph Companies were very largely raised after their entry into the Government service. It appears generally that higher rates are paid by Government for the subordinate work of the Civil Service than are paid by private employers for similar duties; and when the officials of the Telegraph service were transferred to the public service it was deemed impossible that they should receive lower pay than the officers of that department. Another source of expense arises from the fact that the supervising staff is much more costly than that formerly employed by the Companies. It was expected that a saving would be effected by the amalgamation of the working staffs of the different Companies into one Government establishment; but, on the contrary, the staff at present employed for the supervision of the consolidated service is greatly in excess of that considered necessary by the Companies. The Committee, however, declare their opinion that it would not be possible for the Government to work at so cheap a rate as the Telegraph Companies; and this opinion appears to be well founded, and deserves attention by those persons who desire that Government should assume the management of all the railways. More is expected of a Government department, and the Report acknowledges the increased facilities for telegraphing which the public has gained by the transfer to the Post Office, and the amount of labour by which these results have been obtained. "There is no doubt that in certain classes of the work, notably the intercommunication between different stations within London and other large towns, and between cross-country stations, greater advantages are now given to the public than were given under the old system, and it may naturally be supposed that this increased efficiency cannot be obtained without increased cost." There are between four and five hundred offices which do not pay their working expenses, and it is open to Government to close these offices if it thinks fit, and encounter the clamour consequent thereupon. The Post Office is strongly opposed to any general reduction of the system, and it would be difficult to retrace steps which might have been avoided or deferred. At the request of the War Office a district was allotted to the Royal Engineers, who have the entire management of the maintenance of the telegraphic system in that district, and have also been extensively employed in the construction of new

works. The total pay and allowances of the Royal Engineers thus employed are about equal to those of civilians similarly employed, and the Post Office saves that part of this expenditure, which is provided by the War Office. The Report favours a further extension of this system, but it is obvious that the Royal Engineers thus employed are equally paid by the country whether the War Office or the Post Office supplies the hand that pays them. On the whole, it appears that our only choice lies between bearing an annual charge on the public revenue and submitting to some curtailment of the convenience and cheapness which we at present enjoy. This sacrifice might perhaps be made if it were certain to be effectual, but we have had so many falsified predictions that we can no longer believe anything except actual results. Change is undesirable in any matter which enters largely into the habits of the people, and particularly when one change may make occasion for another. But if it were reasonably likely to have the desired effect, the public would probably acquiesce in the charge of 1*d.* for every word, including names and addresses. Only we should like better assurance on this head than the Report furnishes.

A PIUS AND CHARITABLE LOTTERY.

THE Honorary Secretary of a certain Orphanage in Dublin, which we decline to advertise by naming it, entreats us to interest ourselves in that work of charity, and for its benefit to accept or dispose of tickets for a lottery. He encloses twenty-one tickets in his letter, and we find that one coloured green is a free ticket, and twenty coloured pink are priced at sixpence each; so that, besides the blessings of the fatherless, we are offered a commission of five per cent. for our exertions. There is to be a grand drawing of prizes on the 8th of September next, and the first prize is a handsome carriage, horse and harness to match, or 50*l.*; while among the other prizes are a Connemara pony, or 10*l.*; a sewing-machine, or 5*l.*; a case of chablis, a case of fine hock, a sweet-toned violin, a silver-mounted snuff-box, and many other valuable articles.

Assuming that the Orphanage in question exists, and that there is such a person as the gentleman who calls himself its Honorary Secretary, we should say that the extreme of Irish impudence has been reached in his proposal. He announces a grand drawing of prizes "on the plan of the Art Union" in aid of his institution, and appears to be ignorant or regardless of the illegality of his proceeding. He perhaps considers it an unimportant detail that the members of an Art Union, "so long only as their proceedings are carried on in good faith for the encouragement of the fine arts," are discharged and protected from pains and penalties. He hopes by charitable help "to gladden the heart of many a poor child of sorrow," but, however laudable may be this object, it has not been recognized by the Legislature as entitling pious people to set up a lottery. A few years ago a case occurred at Brighton which may help to illustrate the position in which the managers of this Dublin Orphanage may find themselves. The programme of an entertainment stated that at its conclusion "the proprietor would distribute amongst his audience a shower of gold and silver treasures on a scale utterly without parallel, besides a shower of smaller presents, all of which would be impartially divided amongst the audience and given away." The public were admitted on purchasing tickets which were not numbered. The seats of the audience were numbered. At the conclusion of the entertainment the proprietor called out a number on a seat and delivered one of the articles to the person occupying that seat, and in that way distributed all the articles amongst the audience. The justices of Brighton were of opinion that these proceedings were a contrivance to conceal the real nature of the transaction, and that it was, in fact, a game or lottery within the provisions of a statute passed in 1802, and they convicted the defendants and sentenced them as rogues and vagabonds to imprisonment with hard labour. They, however, stated the case for the opinion of a court of law, and the defendants' counsel argued that the transaction was not a lottery. To constitute a lottery, there must be, he said, a contract on the part of the proprietor that, in consideration of the money paid to him by the subscribers, he will distribute certain prizes among them. In this case the proprietor of the rooms only contracted to furnish the purchasers of tickets with the proposed entertainment. The distribution of gold and silver treasures amongst the audience was a mere voluntary gift in return for patronage received. There were no numbers on the tickets, and the calling out the numbers on the chairs was only a matter of convenience. All the statutes relating to lotteries contemplate a distribution of prizes by lot or chance. Here the proprietor selected, according to his caprice, the person to whom he presented the article. The definition of "lottery" in Johnson's Dictionary is "a game of chance, a sortilege, distribution of prizes by chance, a play in which lots are drawn for prizes." The Court, however, were not persuaded by this argument. They had no doubt that not one of the audience had the least notion that the proprietor of the rooms was to give the articles to any person he pleased, but that every one thought that he had a chance of winning them. What was intended, and what the public understood, was that in some way or other, either by chance or the numbers being called out, whether by drawing or in any other way, a number of prizes should be distributed among the audience. It cannot be necessary to quote further from cases to show that the managers

of the Dublin Orphanage are advertising a lottery. We invite their attention to a statute passed in 1836, which provides that, if any person shall publish any advertisement or notice relating to any lottery not authorized by Act of Parliament, every person so offending shall forfeit 50*l.*, to be recovered with full costs of suit by action of debt in any of the Courts in Westminster or Dublin. There can be no such question here as arose in the Brighton case. There is to be a grand drawing of prizes at a fixed time and place, and the winning numbers will be published in certain newspapers. The tickets now before us bear numbers higher than 25,000, so that it is contemplated to issue at least that number of tickets, for which upwards of 600*l.* would be paid, and the balance of this sum, after providing numerous valuable prizes, would be applied to the support of the Orphanage.

The Honorary Secretary, in the circular which he has been good enough to send us with the tickets, states that in his institution "the greatest amount of good is done at the least possible expense." But we must say that money raised by lottery, even for charity, is obtained by encouraging a mischievous taste for gambling. State lotteries were discontinued on this very ground, although for many years the Chancellor of the Exchequer found in them a valuable source of revenue. Suppose that we had now a State lottery proportioned to our national wealth, what madness it would create! The notion of a lottery for pious or charitable uses is not new. In 1619 a lottery was held at Reading for the purpose of raising a sum of money to be lent on certain conditions to poor tradesmen, and one of the conditions was that they should keep neither inn nor tavern. In the reign of King Charles II., lotteries for the relief of indigent Royalists were common. The most famous of these lotteries was called the Royal Oak. In Queen Anne's time the owner of a park invited the public to see his deer killed, and the carcasses were to be cut up and distributed among the purchasers of tickets for this spectacle. It seems that in some way chance came in as an ingredient of the transaction, and therefore this was taken to be a case of lottery, although, like the Brighton case, it was not altogether free from doubt. It is plain from the instances we have cited that the managers of the Dublin Orphanage cannot be considered inventors. Lotteries for every purpose, public and private, for charity and for plunder, abounded under the Stuart Kings and their immediate successors until the Legislature was compelled to intervene to restrain or abolish them. The only species of lottery now tolerated by law is that of Art Unions, and it is expressly required that the prizes shall be either works of art or money to be expended in such works. If Parliament were disposed to indulge people who desire to establish charitable lotteries, we do not think it would listen with patience to a scheme which offered among its prizes a case of hock or chablis. It is difficult indeed to believe that such a grotesque proposal can be serious. We can only suppose that this is a thoughtless extension of a practice which prevails in England. Charitable bazaars, as most of us know to our cost, are common, and towards the end, when sales grow dull, raffles are set on foot, and ladies and clergymen skirmish round the outskirts of the bazaar, and exert gentle pressure on modest gentlemen who have not ventured to approach the stalls. It never occurred to the fair and zealous managers of these proceedings that they were organizing an illegal lottery; yet we apprehend that the clergymen might have been committed to prison as rogues and vagabonds, and, as ladies are now claiming all the privileges of the other sex, they would not of course object to be similarly treated. More than one Act of Parliament has been passed to give relief against penalties incurred by persons who conceived themselves to be engaged in an innocent and laudable work in promoting Art Unions. The Dublin gentleman announces that he is proceeding "on the plan of the Art Union," but if he consults a lawyer he will be told that a case of chablis or hock, though it may be a manufactured product, is not, in the view of the law, a work of art. He tells us that his institution was founded seventeen years ago to counteract the evils of the Irish famine, but he does not add that it has a charter, as required by the Act of Parliament which gives protection to Art Unions. Our sympathies for the destitute and the fatherless are appealed to for support to this charitable lottery as if the same plan had not been adopted many times before. But it is certain that Parliament did not interfere with such plans until the evil effect of them was clearly felt. At a time when advertisements of betting-agents are being rigorously prosecuted, it does not seem likely that such notices as that which lies before us will be allowed impunity. Gambling is not among the sins which charity in any sense of the word ought to cover.

RACING IN SUSSEX.

THE attempts which have been made to introduce new features of interest into the Goodwood programme have been rewarded with a certain measure of success; but the distaste entertained for races of the old type has been manifested more strongly this year than on any previous occasion. It may be satisfactory to the managers of the meeting to observe the favour with which such handicaps as the Chichester Stakes, the Duke of Richmond's Plate, and the Goodwood Corinthian Plate are received by owners of horses; but against this partial improvement in the sport must be set off the increasing failure of the weight-for-age races and rich sweepstakes

for which Goodwood was once so famous. Six of these ended in walks over—namely, the Gratwick, the Rous, and the Racing Stakes, the Goodwood Derby, and the 50 sovs. sweepstakes, all for three-year-olds; and the 100 sovs. sweepstakes on the last day for four-year-olds. Then for the Craven Stakes there were but three runners, for the Drawing-room Stakes four, for the Lennox Stakes a like number; for the 300 sovs. sweepstakes over the Craven course two, for the three-year-old Bentinck Memorial three, and two for the four-year-old race of the same name. An equally paralysing influence seems to have fallen over the two-year-old races, which at this period of the season, and with the ground in such favourable condition for racing, might have been expected to be unusually well patronized. For the Ham Stakes there were three runners, for the Halmaker three, for the Sussex two, for the Molecomb four, for the two-year-old Bentinck Memorial two, for the Stafford Stakes two; and, most astonishing of all, for the Nursery, which used to attract a field of ten or a dozen, only three competitors appeared at the post. Had it not been for the handicap to which we have referred, there would have been a most beggarly array of horses on each day of the meeting, although the card was apparently well filled; and it must be more than ever a matter of astonishment to ordinary observers of racing affairs how the price of blood stock is kept up at its present enormous average, when the purchasers seem so increasingly reluctant to exhibit their representatives in public. There are reasons why Goodwood should be less attractive to owners of horses than other meetings, for it is not easily accessible, and both to owners and to ordinary visitors it is one of the most expensive gatherings of the year. The natives of Sussex have, indeed, brought to a pitch of excellence which can hardly be surpassed the art of extracting money from the pockets of those who, either for business or for pleasure, attend the race-meeting which has made their county famous. There is a great deal in a name, and it was as happy a thought to call Goodwood glorious as to dub Ascot royal. The visitor to either has to pay a good deal more in consequence. Goodwood is truly glorious in one respect; it furnishes a glorious opportunity to every one who has within ten miles of the course a cottage of the humblest dimensions, or a vehicle of the most unpretentious appearance, to make a very pretty income by generously giving up those conveniences for the last week in July; and the opportunity is rarely if ever lost.

Turning to the leading events of each day's racing, we may mention that after Spinaway had walked over for the Gratwick, Lord Falmouth's Farnese carried off the Ham Stakes with little difficulty, and subsequently showed that he had made considerable improvement since the July week at Newmarket. Indeed it was gratifying to notice how well Lord Falmouth's horses ran, on the whole, throughout the Goodwood meeting, in striking contrast with the wretched form they displayed at Ascot. The Halmaker Stakes fell to Ventnor, who was opposed by Brigg Boy and Coronella. The flying heroine of the early months of 1875 has had enough racing for the present, and obviously requires rest, but Brigg Boy, who was penalized 4*lb.*, made a great fight with Ventnor, and suffered defeat by a head only. The Lavant Stakes attracted a field of eight, which in these days must be accounted a comparative success, and the race was won, after a good struggle with Retrospect, by M. de Fligny, another two-year-old who had shown immense improvement on his running at Newmarket in July. The Stewards' Cup was of course the event of the first day and proved as popular as ever. The twenty-two runners included a fair proportion of horses well known for speed over six-furlong or mile courses, and among them were old friends like Modena, Sister Helen, Whitebait, Cachmere, and The Ghost, and new candidates such as Coomassie, Trappist, and Killiecrankie, the latter being especially favoured as coming from the stable which owns Thuringian Prince, the winner of the Hunt Cup at Ascot. Coomassie and Trappist both showed good form as two-year-olds, and the handicapper had not forgotten the fact. They had to give 26*lb.* and 20*lb.* respectively to Killiecrankie, who turned out, however, not only a vastly overrated horse, but also not easy of management in the hands of a boy. The result of the race was in direct contradiction to its traditions, for not one of the leading favourites, Killiecrankie, Ascetic, or Monaco, finished in the first three. The finish was left to Trappist and Coomassie, and the former, carrying the steady weight for a three-year-old of 7*st.* 10*lb.*, won easily at last from Sir A. de Rothschild's representative, the third place being obtained on sufferance by Berryfield. There were no disappointments to speak of in the race, nor could any complaint be made about the start. Trappist and Coomassie, however, were undoubtedly the quickest on their legs when the flag fell, and the advantage they gained at the outset was never lost. Though neither the winner nor the second took much part in the great two-year-old races of last year, a study of their performances will show that their form was considerably above the average level. The handicapper had evidently formed no mean opinion of their merits, and a three-year-old that can win the Stewards' Cup with 7*st.* 10*lb.* on his back is no ordinary animal.

On the second day the Goodwood Stakes kept up its average as far as numbers were concerned, but we can say little in favour of their quality. Lilian was the best of the thirteen, and Lilian, despite the number and variety of her victories, cannot be accounted a first-class mare. Next to her may be mentioned Bertram, Miss Toto, and Polonaise, the North-country Escort, and the uncertain and queer-tempered Freeman. The latter was on this occasion in the hands of Fordham, and, though disappointed more than once during the race, was so delicately handled at the critical moment as to snatch the victory from Bertram and Escort just when they

seemed to have it at their mercy. Bertram, as usual, secured a place, and he has run second a sufficient number of times to wear out the patience of any owner. Escort did well enough to justify the high opinion entertained of him in the North, but the positions attained by the remainder hardly require a notice. Tartine won the Drawing-room Stakes easily from Stray Shot, who promises to be a vastly expensive purchase to her new owner; and Craig Miller's defeat of Earl of Dartrey over the Craven course scarcely astonished those who have seen that neither horse is to be relied on two days running. The meeting of Lowlander, Blenheim, and Oxonian in the Lennox Stakes was highly interesting, and though the son of Dalesman won cleverly at the finish, he had to gallop his best to get out of the way of Blenheim. More than once in his career has Blenheim tried to the utmost the speed of Prince Charlie, and on one occasion at Ascot it will be remembered that he fairly beat the mighty son of Blair Athol. The Findon Stakes fell to M. de Fligny, who with Farness swept the board at Goodwood of the chief two-year-old prizes; and Activity beat Trappist so easily in the Bognor Stakes that, had she started for the Stewards' Cup, she must have been in the side of the winner. She is a racing-like filly, and although by an unfashionable sire out of a half-bred mare, she was snapped up at a large price directly after her second victory at Goodwood.

The Cup day was remarkable for the length of the programme, though the performance by no means came up to the promise. A dead heat for the Sussex Stakes between the Ravioi colt and Coltness showed that Mr. Houldsworth's horse was lucky to win so big a race as the New Stakes at Ascot; and then that arrant rogue Kidbrooke won the Visitors' Plate, when his victory was least expected. Half-a-mile from home Kidbrooke began to play his old tricks and stuck his toes in the ground, and then in another moment he changed his mind and dashed off like a mad horse, completely overpowering his jockey. Cat's-eye galloped away in such style from Stray Shot, Horse-Chestnut, Modena, and Killiecrankie in the Chichester Stakes, that it was difficult to understand how he failed to come to the front in the Stewards' Cup; and Dreadnought beat the provokingly uncertain Earl of Dartrey for the three-year-old Bentinck Memorial. Farness carried off the rich Prince of Wales's Stakes in a canter, and may very likely be the best two-year-old at present out. The two-year-old running, however, has been so contradictory up to the present time that it may be doubted whether there is much first-class form among the young ones. The heroes of last week, however, were unquestionably Farness and M. de Fligny. It was quite in accordance with Goodwood traditions that Polonaise should win the four-year-old Bentinck Memorial over the terrible Queen's Plate course; for Mr. Bowes's horses, however indifferently they may figure in the great two-year-old and three-year-old contests, have the merit of improving with age, and the rare gift of being able to gallop over a three-mile course. A select little field of seven presented themselves for the coveted trophy of the week, the Goodwood Cup; but the withdrawal of Marie Stuart and the absence of Doncaster robbed the race of much of its interest. In their absence Apology seemed to have it at her mercy, and she certainly looked well enough, though probably she has been indulged in her work since her late owner's death. She was opposed by Scamp and Trent, two useful wiry horses, by Kaiser, who also looked uncommonly well, by the game and racing-like Aventuriere, and by two three-year-olds of fair pretensions, Carnelian and Ladylove. The pace was little more than an exercise canter for the first mile and a half, and when it improved it soon became apparent that the Oaks and Leger victor of 1874 could not go fast enough. She was accompanied in her retirement by Kaiser, and the race was then left to four, two of whom, Carnelian and Trent, were beaten before the stand was reached. A good struggle ensued between Scamp and Aventuriere, the former showing indisputable gameness; but the superior quality of Lord Ailesbury's mare told in the last few strides, and the Cesarewitch winner of 1874 gave her owner his first Goodwood Cup by half a length. No victory could have been more popular, and though Aventuriere would probably have been compelled to lower her colours to Doncaster and Marie Stuart, she is quite up to the average of modern cup winners. The field also was as good as can be expected nowadays, the three-year-olds only being badly represented. But six weeks before the St. Leger it cannot be expected that the crack three-year-olds will stand the hazard of a Cup race.

The racing on the last day began with the Queen's Plate, which practically ended in a walk over, for Kidbrooke, who was the solitary opponent of Lilian, altogether refused to go so long a journey as three miles and five furlongs, and, stopping in the middle, was rested till Lilian rejoined him on her way back, and the pair then cantered home at their leisure. Eleven ran for the Duke of Richmond's Plate, including Blenheim, Modena, Oxonian, Dreadnought, and Horse Chestnut; but Modena was the only one of the old horses who could make any fight with the last-named speedy son of Lord Lyon, who won at the end by three lengths. Out of the twenty-six subscribers to the Nursery Stakes, a race which in former years has provoked some good contests at Goodwood, only three sent representatives to the post, and M. de Fligny's two opponents might as well have remained at home, for they could not make the rapidly improving French horse gallop. A good field of seventeen started for the Chesterfield Cup, and Coomassie made up for her disappointment in the Stewards' Cup by winning in very handsome style from Chieftain, who was second in the Cambridgeshire of 1874, and Tartine, who finished respectively second and third. Contrary to precedents,

the heavy weights, including Thunder, Bertram, Trent, and Spectator, never occupied a prominent position in the race; while Thuringian Prince, though in the hands of Fordham, showed to as little advantage as his stable companion Killiecrankie on two previous days. It was quite unnecessary to bring out Fareham—who had been a great favourite for the Duke of Richmond's Plate, but had failed to attract the notice of the judge—a second time in the same afternoon; and his second essay was even more disastrous than the first. Just as Coomassie won the Chesterfield after being second in the Stewards' Cup, so Chieftain carried off the Goodwood Corinthian Plate, a heavy-weight handicap, after running second in the Chesterfield. His victory, however, was barely gained after a desperate struggle with Lady Patricia, who has an unenviable knack of running second, old Ashfield securing the third place. Finally, the Nassau Stakes fell to Spinaway, who had no trouble in disposing of Confiance, Maud Victoria, and Skotzka, and who maintained at the close of the meeting the good form which had been shown by Lord Falmouth's horses generally throughout the four days.

The course at Brighton cannot be compared for a moment with that at Goodwood, yet the capriciousness of public favour has made the Brighton meeting one of the most successful of the year. While at Goodwood it was difficult to get fields of three or four to contest old-established races under the eyes of Royalty, there was hardly a race at Brighton in which seven, eight, or nine horses did not take part, and for the Marine Stakes there were nineteen runners, for the Cliftonville sixteen, and for the Champagne ten. In the Corporation Stakes such distinguished two-year-olds as Camelia, Gilestone, and Levant came to the post, and despite her 7 lbs. penalty, Camelia won cleverly from Gilestone, who, having a maiden allowance, ought to have done better. Levant, good mare as she is in private, is disinclined to try in public, and will probably never forget the dressing she received at Newmarket when Fordham by sheer force compelled her just to win the July Stakes by a head. Even Fordham will find it difficult to persuade her a second time to do her best. Nine ran for the Brighton Stakes, including Louise Victoria, Trent, Petition, and Lilian, whose legs seem able to endure the almost ceaseless work to which she is subjected. A fine race between Louise Victoria and Trent, both of the same age and both running at the same weights, resulted in the victory of Mr. Cartwright's mare. The Marine Stakes fell to Modena, who likes the Brighton course, who is quite indifferent to a welter weight, and who beat Cat's-eye, Glenalmond, and the largest field of the meeting with great ease. She also won the Sussex Welter Handicap on Wednesday, carrying 11 st. 10 lbs., and giving 3 st. and 4 st. to her seven antagonists. For the Bevendean Stakes only M. de Fligny, Levant, and Lucy Hawk ran, the last-named receiving 11 lbs. from the French horse, and 4 lbs. from Lord Rosebery's mare. Lucy Hawk got the best of the start, and, making the most use of her advantage in the weights, went off with a great lead, of which she was never deprived. Levant, as usual, refusing to make an effort when called upon. Marie Stuart, Louise Victoria, Trent, Kaiser, and Scamp ran for the Brighton Cup, and the beautiful daughter of Scottish Chief won under her heavy weight of 9 st. 10 lbs. so cleverly as to show what a certainty the Goodwood Cup would have been for her had she been well enough to start. Scamp, who was a good second at Goodwood, and gave Aventuriere some trouble to shake him off, could never live with Marie Stuart, and the challenge of Louise Victoria was easily met by Mr. Cartwright's mare, while Kaiser and Trent were pulled up some way from home. The latter half of the Sussex fortnight, which began so propitiously on Tuesday, was kept up with unabated spirit to the close of the week; and it may fairly be said that, if the company is not so select or the scene so brilliant, at any rate the sport during the five days of Brighton and Lewes meetings quite throws the racing at Goodwood into the shade.

REVIEWS.

JOYCE'S IRISH NAMES OF PLACES.*

NO class of men better deserve every kind of encouragement, because none have to struggle against greater difficulties and temptations, than the rational school of Irish antiquaries. So we are very glad to see Mr. Joyce again in the field on his former subject of Irish local nomenclature. He has the gift of treating his subject in such a way as to make it intelligible and interesting even to those who have no special knowledge of the Irish language or of Irish geography. For a subject of this kind, when treated in a really intelligent way, has an interest beyond the particular language and country which is immediately concerned; it becomes a contribution to the general history of nomenclature, and thereby a help to the illustration of several remarkable pages in the history of the human mind. Whenever the Celtic languages or Celtic history are treated in a rational way, in their proper relation to other languages and other history, they will never fail to have their value and interest freely acknowledged; it is only because of the nonsense which has been so largely talked about them that they have ever fallen into discredit. The lecture of Professor Geddes on the Gaelic language,

* *The Origin and History of Irish Names of Places. Second Series.* By P. W. Joyce, LL.D. Dublin: McGlashan & Gill. London: Whittaker & Co. 1875.

which we reviewed early this year, is an instance of the important results—important results, we mean, even to those who are not Celtic scholars—which may be got by applying a rational method to the Celtic tongues. And what great results may be dug out of the mine of ancient Irish institutions is at once shown by Sir Henry Maine's last volume. In the same way Mr. Joyce's inquiries often throw light on matters beyond the immediate range of the Irish tongue. Especially when we remember into what close collision the English and Irish languages have been brought, how much of Irish ground has been occupied by English-speaking people, and how large a part of the Irish nation in their own land have adopted the English language, we shall at once see how much light an inquiry like this may throw on the way in which the two tongues influenced one another. Most Irish names have an English form; many English names have an Irish form; and the number of native Irish words which have been adopted into the dialects of the English-speaking parts of Ireland is not small. This last question at once connects itself with cases of the same kind in other languages. The Irish infusion which has made its way into the English of Ireland exactly answers to the Gaulish infusion which made itself into the Latin of Gaul, and thereby into modern French. It is a subject for inquiry what is the relative proportion of the native Celtic infusion in the two cases. In French, as every philologist knows, the number of Celtic words is very small, at first sight amazingly small. Is the corresponding element in the other case larger? It would not be wonderful if it were so. Though a large part of the native Irish nation has adopted the English tongue, they have not adopted English habits and feelings to anything like the same degree in which the Gauls adopted Roman habits and feelings. It would be no more than we should look for if they carried with them a greater proportion of native words into the acquired tongue. Mr. Joyce, after describing the use of an Irish word in local nomenclature, often adds that it is still in common use, even with those who speak English. One of the most startling cases is when Mr. Joyce explains to us that Druids are still to be found in other places besides a Welsh Eisteddfod and a dinner to the members for the city of Oxford:—

The old Celtic word for a druid is *drui* [dree] which takes a *d* in the end of its oblique cases (gen. *druid*); the Greek and Latins borrowed this word from the Celts, and through them it has found its way into English in the form *druid*. Notwithstanding the long lapse of time since the extinction of druidism, the word *drui* is still a living word in the Irish language. Even in some places where the language is lost, the word is remembered; for I have repeatedly heard the English-speaking people of the south apply the term *shoundree* (*sean-drui*, old druid) to any crabbed, cunning, old-fashioned looking fellow. This very term is perpetuated in the name of Loughnashandree—the lake of the old druids—a very small lake near the head of Ardgrum harbour, south-west of Kenmare.

The odd corruptions of Irish names on English lips and of English names on Irish lips meet us in every page of Mr. Joyce's book. He has a chapter on Diminutives, a class of words which in Irish, as in other languages, have often lost their diminutive force. Words like the Italian *sorella* form an obvious instance. So the received form of a word in French constantly comes from a diminutive form in Latin; and in the Swiss dialect of German everything is spoken of in a diminutive form from "Kaiser Karli" downwards. Not but that some Irish diminutives are real diminutives, and have sometimes found their way into English in that character. A "squireen" is a well-known instance, where an Irish diminutive is tacked on to what, as far as Ireland is concerned, is an English word. When an Irish child in a story is made to call the rooks "birdeens," the formation is exactly the same, though the strictly diminutive sense is not quite so plain. But what the Irish have done to English words in themselves learning to speak English, they have also done to Latin words in adopting them into Irish. Thus *an* is an Irish diminutive as well as the better known *in* or *een*, and from the Latin *sanctus* was formed *santan*, as if we were to talk of a *saintkin*. Then a place is called *Killsantan* or *Killmosantan*; it gets corrupted into "Kill St. Anne," "St. Anne's Church," and "St. Anne's Well," and lastly a neighbouring house gets called "Anne Mount."

Mr. Joyce has a chapter on "Borrowed Words," words borrowed by English from Irish, and words borrowed by Irish from English. In his list he confines himself to those words in both languages which claim a place in his own subject of local nomenclature; he confines himself also to words which are still in use, and where the borrowing from one language to the other is not very ancient. *Boig*, for instance, a truly Irish idea certainly, he claims as an Irish word which has become as familiar in English as in Irish, or rather which lives on in English while it is dying out in Irish, for there it seems to have been supplanted by the derivative from *bogach*. That *boig* should enter into Irish nomenclature is not wonderful; one is not so well prepared, not only to find the familiar word *bother* claimed as Irish, but to find it used as an element in Irish names and places. *Bother*, according to Mr. Joyce, is simply Irish for deaf, *bodhar*. "To turn the *bothered* ear to a person" seems to be a well-known phrase in Ireland, where we should speak of the "deaf ear." If *bother* be really an Irish word, we have had the merit of keeping the sound of all the letters of the ancient Irish *bodhar*, from which, according to the rule of the Irish language, the *thorn* has fallen out in Irish pronunciation. Mr. Joyce naturally asks why a glen or a bridge or an island or a mill should be called *deaf*; but such appears to be the case with several objects of those kinds in Ireland, whose names bear in modern spelling the sign of their deafness in the ending *bower*. *Tory*, properly *tóruidhe*—though *tóruidhe* is to the ear, by the law just mentioned,

very much the same as *Tory*—the word which first meant a hunter, then a robber or outlaw, then a supporter of Church and King, is naturally found in the name of more than one place in Ireland, and it also lives on in a spoken language, in a sense not exactly the same as it bears in England. A nurse will call a naughty child "a young *Tory*," much as we have heard an English nurse in the same case speak of "a terrible Turk." *Barm-brack* is quoted by Mr. Joyce as a word well known in the English of Ireland to mean a certain kind of cake, but the word has not found its way into England. The first syllable, "the Irish word represented in sound by *barren*"—the better form of the name is *barreen-brack*—"is *baryghin*, which signifies a cake." The name is sometimes applied to a piece of land of a round shape; in this way the *barreen* has found its way into local nomenclature. Among the English words which have found their way into Irish names of places, Mr. Joyce reckons *park*, in the form of *pairc*. He says, "It exists also in the Welsh, but it is probable that both the Welsh and the Irish borrowed it from the Teutonic dialects." Mr. Earle, it will be remembered, sets it down as one of the Welsh words which have crept into English. He finds it both in Welsh and in Breton, and he rejects the obvious High-Dutch cognate. "I think Förstemann (Ortsnamen, p. 83) is mistaken in identifying *Park* with adh. *pferrich*, nhd. *pferch*=a hurdle, pen for cattle; except in so far as it may have got *blended* with the Keltic word." But when we find *parricus*, *parcus* in the Riparian and continental Anglian laws, and when we find in Notker's Psalms "Uzzer dero Gotes *parc* werdent sic ferstozzen," one is perhaps inclined to adopt Mr. Joyce's history of the word rather than Mr. Earle's. It must of course be understood that, both in Celtic and in Teutonic, the word has a much wider sense than what Mr. Earle calls "the modern and grandiose use" of it. In all these cases it simply means field or enclosure of any kind, and we have heard it sounded by a West-Saxon witness exactly as it is spelled in the Chronicles under the year 918, *pearuc*. Among the other English words which have given names to Irish places, Mr. Joyce reckons *Earl*, in the form of *Jarla*. The word, he says, "was borrowed into Irish at the time of the Anglo-Norman invasion"; would it not rather have come earlier with the Danes? At any rate the Irish form, like the Scottish *Yerl*, seems to point to the living on of the older sound alike of the English *Earl* and of the Danish *Jarl*.

Mr. Joyce has several chapters on English and Irish personal and family names and nicknames, when he says, "no people in the world are, I believe, so given to nicknames as the Irish, unless perhaps the Scotch." Surely the Italians ought to be excepted before all other people. Mr. Joyce thus explains the special prevalence of nicknames in Ireland and Scotland:—

The propensity of the Irish and Scotch for nicknames may, I think, be explained by the fact, that the tradition of personal names being significant and descriptive still remains fresh on the minds of the people; and that many of the names themselves retained their significance—that is, they were living, intelligible words—as long as the people continued to speak the Celtic language.

In comparing the Irish names with the Norman and English names which have come in alongside of them, we must allow not only for the mutual corruption which always takes place in such cases, but also for the working of that special law of the Irish language which, as we have seen, makes certain letters silent in the middle of a word:—

The Irish language does not admit to such an extent as the Teutonic languages, of the union of two or more consonants in pronunciation, without the intervention of a vowel sound. Where such combinations occurred in an English or Danish name, the Irish often omitted some of the consonants; or if they were committed to writing by Irish scribes, the letters were inserted, but under aspiration, which indicated their partial or total omission in pronunciation. Thus the Danish name Godfrey, which was occasionally adopted into Irish families, is written by the Four Masters *Gothraifith*, which would indicate the suppression in pronunciation of the *d* (or of the *th* which replaces it in the Irish form):—*Gothraifith*, pronounced *Goffry*. But in actual use by speakers, the *f* was also generally aspirated and consequently omitted; and the name is exhibited so curtailed in Derrygory in Monaghan (near the village of Aughnacloy), Gorry's or Godfrey's oak wood; and in Mullatigorry in the parish of Tedavnet, same county, the hill-summit (*mallu*) of Godfrey's house.

Geoffrey by the same process becomes *Sherry* or *Sheara*, and as the Irish has no sound like our soft *g*, *George* becomes *Shoresha*, a fitting punishment for the original error of softening the *Gammas* in *Teópulos*. On the other hand, there is the strange fashion of identifying genuine Irish names with names with which they have nothing whatever to do. Thus we have the great and ancient Irish name *Ædh*, the sound of which however is simply that of the first letter of the alphabet, but which is said to be cognate with the Gaulish *Ædui*, the brothers of the Romans. "Those who write in Latin use the form *Aidus*, and in English it is always made *Hugh*, which," Mr. Joyce truly observes, "is a Teutonic name with an entirely different signification." So *Aengus* "is still in use as a personal name, but nearly always changed to *Aeneas*." So again:—

From Bran, son of *Maclmordha* (king of Leinster, slain in the battle of Clontarf), are descended the family of O'Brain, who now generally call themselves O'Byrne, or more generally Byrne, sometimes more correctly O'Brin, and occasionally Burn, Byrnes, Burns, Brin, and sometimes even Byron.

The Scots in Irish still keep the ancient name of *Albanach*, which is found in some names of places. The Welshman is still, as he ought to be, *Breathnach*. That we are ourselves *Sassonach* is one of the great facts of ethnical nomenclature. Mr. Joyce adds:—

The word *Sassonach* is still used in the spoken language, but it is now

generally understood to mean a Protestant, and it is commonly used in an offensive sense; but these shades of meaning are vulgar and very modern.

Here we have an instance of the working of the same law by which Hindu and Parsee, in themselves merely national names, have become the names of religions, and by which not so long ago Englishmen called all Mahometans "Turks," and sometimes even spoke of Islam as "Turkism." Just in the same way, the modern Greek, till he took up again the forgotten name of "Ελλην," called himself "Ρεπατος" or "Χριστιανος" as interchangeable names.

LAST LETTERS FROM EGYPT.*

THERE is always a little difficulty in dealing with a posthumous publication, and when the author is a lady the difficulty is increased. Death, like charity, not only covers a multitude of sins, but imparts a fictitious value to positive merits. On the whole, however, we are not disposed to question the propriety of publishing the last letters which Lady Duff Gordon ever wrote in the country which certainly helped to prolong her life, though it witnessed her death and now holds her remains. But while we welcome the *Last Letters from Egypt*, we are somewhat at a loss to understand why the other half of the volume should be taken up with "Letters from the Cape." They are not choice legacies or unexpected windfalls. They date fifteen years back, and they have already been given to the public in Mr. F. Galton's edition of *Vacation Tourists and Notes of Travel*, in the year 1864, in company with Mr. H. B. Tristram's *Winter Ride in Palestine*, Mr. W. G. Clark's *Poland*, Mrs. Lubbock's *Ancient Shell Mounds of Denmark*, and other interesting papers. The "Letters from the Cape" in Mr. Galton's compilation are introduced by a short preface by Mrs. Austin, the mother of Lady Duff Gordon, wherein the genuineness and frankness of the narrative, as well as the writer's sympathy with feeble, subject, and uncivilized people, are dwelt on to justify the publication. In the present volume no particular reasons whatever are assigned, and we can only suppose that it was thought desirable to swell the volume to an orthodox bulk. However, we accept the bequest, and do not quarrel with an introduction of forty pages which gives the parentage, life, and habits of one who, to mental gifts, personal attractions, and literary attainments, united a wonderful power of entering into the feelings and prejudices of aliens, and of leading them like captives in her train. The events of Lady Duff Gordon's life were simple and few. Her father was the well-known John Austin, the writer on Jurisprudence. To his residence in Germany, in connexion with his profession, his daughter owed that thorough acquaintance with the German literature and language which enabled her to translate into English some very excellent authors. Her marriage with Sir Alexander Duff Gordon took place in 1840, when she was only nineteen years of age; and before and after that event she seems to have lived in a choice circle of intellectual friends and acquaintances, comprising, with others, the Mills, Luttrell, the late Marquess of Lansdowne, Thackeray and Dickens, Eliot Warburton, and occasionally such remarkable foreigners as Dwarakanath Tagore, Leopold Ranke, Heine, and the late Emperor of the French. We may remark that the world is hardly concerned to know that Mr. J. S. Mill was usually addressed by Lady Duff Gordon as "Bun Don" or Brother John. Viewed either as political economist, philosopher, member of Parliament, or social reformer, in all of which capacities he attained distinction of some kind, there was nothing playful or socially attractive about Mr. Mill. We should be much surprised if a treatise on nicknames or *nugae* were discovered in his papers, and we set no special value on any pet abbreviation by which this rather dreary prophet was known either at Esher or in Queen's Square, Westminster. Neither, again, was it necessary to make three separate references to a ballad which, when sung by Lady Duff Gordon, seems to have tickled the fancy of Heinrich Heine. Doubtless, the fate of a certain Ladye Alice and her humble lover Giles Collins may have been very pathetical when set to music and cleverly sung, but there is no pathos in the announcement that, after the sad finale, a certain parson "licked up the gruel" of which the ill-fated and high-born damsel had only drunk one spoonful. It has been often remarked that in the present state of literary criticism there is no room for a despot like Dr. Johnson. But, for all that, one of his trenchant sayings seems to be very much needed in a coterie which could treasure up, as valuable, twaddling anecdotes of this sort.

These letters from Egypt, now published for the first time, have a charm and a novelty of their own which make us willing to forget these slight violations of good taste. In the first place, there is hardly an allusion in them, from first to last, to the Egypt of hieroglyphics, of Herodotus, of colossal statues, and of mysteries as remote as the Book of Exodus. Boulak, Luxor, and Thebes more than once head the chapters; but Lady Duff Gordon has, out of her wanderings up and down the river, created a new Egypt of her own. She introduces us to the household of the Sheikh. She is a proficient in the language of the Reis and the boatmen, and can catch the song of the crew when they drag the Dahabieh against stream at the rate of some two miles an hour, and chant the return of the bridegroom to his bride. We think it was Thackeray who remarked that, on his first visit to Aleppo or

Damascus, he did really catch a few glimpses of the Arabian Nights, but that, on a second attempt, the whole romance vanished, as it needs must do in narrow, dusty streets, plagued with swarms of flies and beggars suffering from every variety of ophthalmic disease. Now Lady Duff Gordon never rhapsodizes about the Alif Leila, nor does she discern the Vizier Giaffar in some Sheikh-al-Balad; but she brings before us sights and scenes which show that Mohammedanism has in some respects not much altered since the days of the Khalifs. Something rises to the surface near the boat as the Reis was sounding with a pole. It turns out to be the dead body of a woman, and the crew, seeing the silver bracelets untouched, at once jump to the conclusion that this "one more unfortunate, weary of breath," was not the victim of robbers or common murderers, but had been strangled by her father for incontinence or infidelity. The reader may imagine that the boatmen would have him brought to justice. Nothing of the kind occurs. They at once pray compassionately for the unhappy parent who was compelled, from motives of honour, "to whiten his face" in this way. It turned out, however, that there was neither shame to be hidden nor foul stain to be washed off, inasmuch as the poor woman had been accidentally drowned. Another story, however, admitted of no such favourable interpretation. Two dead bodies hitched in the anchor chain. They were Circassians, mother and son, and not, as might have been imagined, the wife and the paramour. The mother had taken the young man to visit a slave girl, the wife of an officer. The husband, to quote Lady Duff Gordon's own words, "caught them, killed them, tied them together, and flung them into the Nile." He then gave himself up to the police, when all was very properly "hushed up," although "these sort of things happen every day." Something of the writer's influence over all with whom she came in contact must have been due to the simplicity of her domestic habits. Instead of the piles of sardines in tin, potted meats, and preserved soups with which Englishmen are wont to load their Nile boats, she was contented with Arab fare. A dish or two of fowl or stewed meat, a pile of rice, some bread, and a few dates, composed her usual meals. Occasionally she was indulged with a kind of macaroni; or with calves' feet put in an earthen pan, seasoned with herbs, and baked in the bread oven; or with clotted cream, which in the letters is called "kishta," but which, we suspect, is occasionally known as "yaourt," and largely eaten all over the East. But even Lady Duff Gordon could not escape the charge of extravagance for requiring a few sauce-boats and pie-dishes, and one honest Effendi, who may be somewhat akin to Mr. Kinglake's celebrated Pasha, when amazed at the preparations for the Nile journey, was still more scandalized by an account of the luxury and magnificence of the Alexandrian merchants, who, said one of the servants, required "for each soul" "seven plates of all sorts, seven knives and seven forks, and seven spoons large and small, and seven different glasses for wine, and beer, and water." We have not room for many more of these characteristic anecdotes, and must refer readers to the book itself. We can well understand that the writer's fame spread from the river-bank to the clusters of clay huts termed villages, as the Sitti-al-Kabir, or great lady; that she was saluted respectfully by grave Kazis; that attendants submitted to moderate chastisement at her behest, without drawing knives or running away; that she was applied to by Egyptian ladies for the loan of her camp-stools, umbrellas, and side-saddle; and that merchants were willing to pay something for a passage down the river on her boat.

It is to the credit of Lady Duff Gordon that her intimate acquaintance with the interior of households, her admiration for the better parts of the native character, and her friendly intercourse with Moolahs and Moulavis never blind her to the intensely Oriental character of the administration in the Delta of the Nile. No advanced M.P. taking notes of Egypt in winter for a speech in Parliament in the ensuing spring, no travelling partner in a great Manchester house who holds it to be the Pasha's business to make the desert sprout everywhere with cotton plants, and who is determined that his city shall dictate the commercial legislation of the year, ever drew a more vivid picture of grinding taxation from his own consciousness or his limited observation than Lady Duff Gordon has done from the abundance of her resources. The system of forced labour is carried to such an extent as to leave us in wonderment how any fields can be tilled. From Keneh alone 25,000 men were taken to work for sixty days without food or pay, which we know the builders of the Pyramids were not. Substitutes could only be had at exorbitant prices. Men so hurried away from their homes died rapidly from cold, exposure, and scanty food. Of course camels fared no better than human beings. And one small district was mulcted to the amount of 6,000 purses, or 18,000*l.*, on this head alone. Yet, while works advanced without disbursements, pensions and salaries were three months in arrears, and the common soldiers were never paid at all. The sole evidence of governing power was afforded by the invention of new taxes. Besides camels and horses, the very donkeys and sheep were made to contribute; and there were taxes on the existence of an animal in the field, and on its transfer by sale in the market, and on charcoal, butter, and salt. Respectable men offered Lady Duff Gordon one-half of their standing crop of wheat if she would only then and there pay half their taxes. Headmen of districts remained in prison for failure to collect the impost levied on their villages. In some places, men, summoned to the *cortege*, preferred to harvest their green crops before their departure; and in addition to hard work with the hoe and the reaping-hooks, their religion compelled them to go through 450 *rekaas* or prostrations on the Mohammedan Sunday. The consequences of this oppres-

* *Last Letters from Egypt; to which are added Letters from the Cape*. By Lady Duff Gordon. With a Memoir by her Daughter, Mrs. Ross. London: Macmillan & Co. 1875.

sion cleared the country not only of men and asses, but even of hawks, vultures, and birds of prey. There was nothing to spare for the mere "hangers-on" of social life. From this account of universal misgovernment we should be inclined to exempt the alterations effected in Cairo itself. It may be that houses in that city have been knocked down to make room for new streets, while the owners get no compensation; but those who recollect the capital of Lower Egypt some thirty years ago will acknowledge that a fine square and broad avenues may be improvements on the *arcus vicorum inflexus* where two donkeys could not go abreast. Nor must we despise the possible admission of light and air into alleys which had been for years the nursery-beds of contagion and disease.

We were told, in the first volume of these letters, published in 1865, that the Arabic names and expressions had been corrected by an eminent Oriental scholar "no less intimately acquainted with the people than with the language of Egypt." We apprehend Mr. Palgrave to be the person indicated. We are not quite certain whether the same skilled revision has been applied in the present instance, but explanations are wanting, and the pronunciation of several words must be taken as peculiar to Cairo and Egypt. *Hazir*, meaning "ready," is pronounced *hader*. For *Jumma*, a *total*, or an assembly, *Gemma* is substituted; and a word which we take to be *Saudagar*, originally meaning merchant, becomes *Howagar*, or gentleman. *Bakloueh* we imagine to be a miscellaneous dish of meat and flour, sometimes seasoned with dates and milk; possibly, *bakilat* is intended. The *Mereessah* is the African beer, of which we hear so much in Sir Samuel Baker's *Ismailia*. *Fateerah* is, we believe, a dish of paste, hastily served up with meat. *Ameer-el-Moor-neneen* is obviously a misprint for *Ameer-al-Mominin*, the Commander of the Faithful. The *rabab* is something between a rebeck and a violin, and there are other expressions which require a note, and of which we are not quite certain.

The second part of this volume may be dealt with summarily. The observation of the writer was just as keen at the Cape as on the banks of the Nile. The dry, exhilarating climate of South Africa, the luscious grapes and peaches, the last survivors of the Hottentot race, the simplicity of the old Dutch colonists, the "spans" or teams of mules, the breeds of fine oxen, the horses that carry ponderous Boers over indifferent roads for days together, at the rate of fifty and sixty miles a day—on these and similar topics the writer's descriptive vivacity never fails. But the chief value of the book consists in its evidence of the magic of sympathy. Aliens and fatalists, coerced by the stick, worried by the tax-gatherer, and often misunderstood by Europeans, voluntarily bowed down with something almost approaching to chivalry before a woman who had a kindly glance and a sympathizing word for every Ahmed and Mustafa. Indian administrators know very well that natives in uncivilized provinces will endure anything and go anywhere for a ruler who governs like a despot, but takes the trouble to interpret the feelings and to study the character of his subjects. But here we have a lady who might have ruled a large district by the people's choice. We should have been glad of a few sentences to explain exactly how Lady Duff Gordon acquired her knowledge of the Arabic language, probably one of the most difficult of the Semitic tongues. And we lay down the book with regret that no more light will be thrown on the interior of an Arab household or on the mal-administration of a fine province by one who to something of the insight of Mr. Palgrave added the descriptive power which reminds us of the first and best portion of Miss Eden's Indian correspondence.

JACOX'S SHAKSPEARE DIVERSIONS.*

IF this book had been called *Jacox Diversions* instead of *Shakspeare Diversions*, the title would have been much nearer the mark. Its author, or compiler rather, is evidently a man of extended and promiscuous reading, and a singularly industrious and methodical noter-down and classifier of every passage that strikes his fancy. The clerks at Mudie's must groan over the multitude of entries required for *Jacox, Francie*, and he must have had as many amanuenses as Southey to keep pace with the incessant demands for transcribers. Under such a continual process of acquisition his pigeon-holes must long ere this have become filled to the mouth, and his commonplace books bursting with repletion, if he had not from time to time hit upon some scheme for giving back to the public a portion of their contents. Relief of some kind appears to be necessary every second year. *Cues from all Quarters* removed the plethora of 1871; the oppressed breathing of 1873 was met by *At Nightfall and Midnight*; and the threatened apoplexy of 1875 has been made to give way, at least temporarily, by *Shakspeare Diversions*. In time every man becomes his own doctor, and we are glad to find from the preface that Mr. Jacox is preparing himself for further remedial measures in 1877.

We had hinted that the title might have been improved before we observed that our objection had been anticipated by the author himself, under a threat against any caviller, such as old Gifford *shook in terror* over the head of the offender who should dare in future to lift up his voice in favour of Drummond of Hawthornden.

In the stern old critic's case the words could only proceed from the "lips of hopeless idiotism—*longa manantia labra saliva*": but Mr. Jacox, as might be expected, is less vigorous in his denunciation. "That these Diversions are not very diverting—it were churlish by anticipation to grudge to gentle Dulness, that dearly loves a joke, one so mild and mediocre as that; so ready-made and second-hand; so obvious, and so obviously small. The title may indeed seem a ready-made invitation to that jest." As Mr. Jacox says that the joke is "second-hand," we wish he had told us the occasion on which it was first perpetrated. The only similar name we can call to mind is the *Diversions of Purley*, and any man is little to be envied who failed to find entertainment of a very high kind in the sparkling disquisitions of the acute and philosophical son of the "Turkey Merchant." But we are not certain after all whether *Perversions* of Shakspeare would not be a still more appropriate name than that which we at first suggested. To justify this let us endeavour to explain what appears to us to have been Mr. Jacox's plan of proceeding. Having, as we before said, accumulated a vast amount of cuttings, and pasted them down alphabetically in the fashion of a catalogue-maker, he hit upon the notable device of hunting out in the pages of the inexhaustible and much enduring Shakspeare the first passage which contained any allusion to the heading under which each batch of his extracts was classified, and then, converting that passage into a beast of burden, he saddled it with as much of the "motley wear," or rather "motley ware," as in decency it could be made to carry. In this way the work may be described as the *converse* of Mr. Hazlitt's *Shakspeare's Library*. In the one we have all the writers presented to us whom Shakspeare may have read; in the other all the writers who may have read Shakspeare.

We cannot give a better specimen of Mr. Jacox's method than in his selection of Hotspur's description of "that neat, trimly-dressed lord, who came mincingly to him when the fight was done, and so exasperated the wounded warrior, spent by hard fighting, with his fopperies and affectations." Now here the whole effect depends upon, and is produced by, the particular time at which the lord made his approach, and the particular mood in which he found the fiery warrior. Had the circumstances been different, both his fopperies of person and affectations of conversation might have been viewed in an exactly opposite manner. The poet invented the details to illustrate and develop the character of Hotspur, not as indicating his own ideas of the characterizing marks of a "would-be warrior" and a "drawing-room carpet-knight," according to the headings of Mr. Jacox's pages. Indeed, Shakspeare knew human nature too well, and lived in an age when there was too much both of heroism and of puppyism to suppose for an instant that there was anything incompatible or even incongruous in the co-existence of the two in the same person. When the great Queen had grown old and banished looking-glasses from her sight, we may be sure that her idea of "a man" became considerably more artificial than when it had originally been formed at the Court of her grave young brother. Sir Walter Scott, who was altogether unrivalled in getting at the true spirit of any time, has well illustrated this in his first introduction of the youthful Raleigh. He represents him as clad in the gayest habit used by persons of quality at the period, a richly laced and embroidered crimson velvet cloak, with a hat of the same material, encircled with a gold chain turned three times round it, and secured by a medal. His hair, too, was most carefully combed upwards, and his ears were pierced to receive a pair of pearl earrings. If in this attire even Walter Raleigh had presented himself to Harry Hotspur

When he was dry with rage and extreme toil,
Breathless and faint, leaning upon his sword,

we are afraid he would have been spoken of as contemptuously as King Henry's messenger. It happens curiously enough that Mr. Jacox has penetrated with his scissors into the very scene of *Kenilworth* to which we have above referred, but, as the description of Raleigh would not in the least answer his present purposes, he chooses for his clipping a cynical remark of the rough old soldier, the Earl of Sussex. What Mr. Jacox would have us to understand is that Shakspeare and all other eminent writers have united in representing men of apparently feminine habits as being *ipso facto* contemptible as soldiers. In this view we suppose he would have anticipated an immediate "skedaddle" from the three hundred young Lacedaemonians whom the spies of Xerxes found combing out their long hair in the morning sun in the defiles of Thermopylae; and he of course altogether ridicules Mr. Tennyson's idea that the engaging youth who has passed his life measuring out ribbon to ladies would, in the event of "the enemy's fleet coming yonder round by the hill,"

leap from his counter and till,

And strike, if he could, were it but with his cheating yard-wand home.

The letter in which a certain Robert Clive orders "two hundred shirts, the best and finest that can be got for love or money," must be a felonious invention of Sir John Malcolm's; and Colonel Gurwood must have interpolated the passages in which the Duke, speaking of the arrival of certain battalions of Guards, says more than once, and evidently with all his heart, "the young dandies fight well." In fact, it would be easy for a person of ordinary reading to speak off a better case for the one side than Mr. Jacox with all his pigeon-holes has been able to establish for the other. But, in addition to what we have already said, we will only mention that, in the roughest of our Indian wars, the campaign in Afghanistan, the old Colonel whom the Duke in

* *Shakespeare Diversions: a Medley of Motley Wear.* By Francis Jacox, Author of "At Nightfall and Midnight," "Cues from all Quarters," &c. London: Daldy, Isaacs, & Co.

his letters to Lord Ellenborough singled out as his "favourite" was to all intents and purposes a thorough tailor's man at every moment in which he was not actually engaged with the enemy in the field, when he at once became soldier all over; while an officer, who was marked out for a special distinction after the siege of Delhi, was well known to consume three-quarters of an hour every morning in arranging his "back parting." On the other hand, the cowards of the old poets are generally selected from the rufflers and boasters and swaggering bullies who seem to have been such regular attendants at the ordinaries of the period. Take, for instance, Bobadill, who used to be represented so admirably by the late Mr. Dickens, and whom we believe to be the best coward that ever was depicted. He had, it is true, a single pair of silk stockings, as we know from the fact of his pawning them to procure a warrant for the arrest of the merchant who had threatened to beat him, but his raiment in other respects appears to have been grave and unpretending. The mere fact, too, of being scented could not have been regarded as unsoldierlike in the Shakspearian times, for that preux chevalier Lord Herbert of Cherbury boasts that what was artificial in others was natural to him, and that the pleasing attribute extended to his dirty linen, for "it is well known to those that wait in my chamber that the shirts, waistcoats, and other garments I wear next my body are sweet beyond what easily can be believed"; and the noble Puritan matron, Lucy Hutchinson, tells us almost exactly the same about her beloved Colonel.

We must mention another instance in which we cannot but think that Mr. Jacox has wandered still further out of the course proper for an illustrator of Shakspeare. After remarking very truly that "such a tragedy as *King Lear* could well afford a good riddance of such a scene as the plucking out of Gloster's eyes, gouged, scooped out, thrown on the ground, and stamped upon by a Duke of Cornwall *coram populo*," he does not pass on to the next act, but proceeds to dilate upon the disgusting subject in a chapter all to itself, which we observe is described by one of our contemporaries as being, "though inexpressibly painful, singularly full, and charged with many strange facts and allusions; half spiritual and half physiological"! which our readers will recognize as a very peculiar species of *Shakspeare Diversion*. Well may Mr. Jacox himself exclaim, "A monstrous chapter might be made up of emptied eye-sockets," and we are only surprised that he did not induce his publisher to give a copy of a tail-piece from *Bon Gaultier's Ballade*, where a suffering American duellist is making his weary way out of the wood in which he had successfully encountered his rival. Professor Ayton's tail-piece and Mr. Jacox's *Diversion* are conceived in one and the same spirit. But is not the latter altogether wrong in describing the operation of extinguishing the sight as attended with extreme agony and danger to life? Thirty years ago in Egypt, every third or fourth male a traveller met with had voluntarily sacrificed his right eye to escape from the horrors of Mahomed Ali's conscriptions, and many an English officer may still be found in Pall Mall and St. James's Square who remembers the ancient Shah Zemauz whose threatened march upon India in 1798 led Lord Mornington to add twenty-eight battalions to the Bengal Army, and who shortly afterwards being seized and blinded by the eldest brother of Dost Mahomed Khan, lived for forty years, full of vigour and of vice to the very last. This is perhaps the very latest instance of a sovereign prince being punished in this way, and we recommend Mr. Jacox to add it to his list. We also venture to recommend as a fitting text for a chapter or two in the threatened *Diversions* of 1877, the pleasing stage direction in *Titus Andronicus*, "Enter Lavinia, ravished; her hands cut off, and her tongue cut out." Here is altogether untrdden ground for the introduction of "strange facts and allusions, half spiritual and half physiological."

We are also compelled to find fault with a method of quotation Mr. Jacox has fallen into which, to our ears at least, is, when often repeated, singularly offensive. It was first used, we believe, by a writer of a very different class, Mr. John Forster, in his admirable essay on Charles Churchill, and as long as it was a novelty had a tolerably good effect. We allude to the trick of quoting rhymed verse as if it were prose. We had marked down certain instances in these *Diversions* which had moved our particular dislike; but, having mislaid the references, are reduced to quote the first that catch the eye on turning over the leaves:—

The moral of Waller's song of a fading rose is the common fate of all things rare—"How small a part of time they share, that are so wondrous sweet and fair."—P. 36.

Again, two pages further on:—

In the *Siege of Corinth* we are pointed to a ruined temple fashioned by long-forgotten hands, "two or three columns, and many a stone, marble and granite with grass o'ergrown."—P. 38.

And just below:—

It is a theme that Scott, no less than Byron, loved to harp on; as in his sketch of the ancient Hall of Rokeby, "whose battlements and turrets gray seemed half abandoned to decay: on barbican and heap of stone, stern Time the foeman's work had done."—P. 38.

From these specimens our readers will imagine the effect of such a course pursued for a page at a time, and be thankful that we are unable to favour them with the specimens originally selected for their edification.

We are unwilling to part with a work on which so much industry has been expended without bearing testimony to the great accuracy with which, to the best of our judgment, the multitudinous quotations appear to be presented. The copyists have

evidently been up to their work, and a vigilant eye has been kept upon the printers. But the most watchful are sometimes caught napping, and it is perhaps our own fault that we are unable to remember any passage in *Quentin Durward* in which "Charles of Burgundy's injunctions against the Countess of Crèvecœur excite a general murmur of remonstrance" (p. 174).

RUSSIAN ROMANCE.*

BY a singular coincidence two translations from the Russian have appeared simultaneously, but independently, which serve to give some idea of the merits of two of the most gifted writers whom Russia has as yet produced. Those two writers moreover have not been thus linked by chance in an incongruous union; for their lives were in some points alike, their talents were to a great extent akin, and even in their deaths they were not altogether dissimilar. For each of them was killed in a duel, dying young, before the promise of his life was fulfilled, but not before he had become familiar with trouble and disappointment, and the languor which comes of energy mis-spent. Unlike some other Russian authors, moreover, they have both had the good fortune to be represented in the present instance by interpreters who appear to be well qualified to render their meaning plain.

Alexander Poushkin, the author of the seven prose stories translated by Mrs. Telfer under the title of *Russian Romance*, was born in the spring of 1799. His father, a Captain in the Guards, traced his pedigree up to a certain Radshi, who came from Prussia to Novgorod in the times of Saint Alexander Nevsky; he was also proud of counting among his ancestors a highly distinguished Boyar, Gregory Poushkin, who represented the Tsar Alexis Mikhailovich at the Polish Court, and was Governor of Nijny Novgorod at the time of his death. The mother of Alexander Poushkin was the niece of a General Hannibal, who distinguished himself at the battle of Navarino, and the granddaughter of the celebrated negro Hannibal, who, after being sold as a slave at Constantinople and purchased by the Russian Ambassador, found a loving protector and godfather in Peter the Great, and attained to the rank of general in the Russian service. The young Alexander at a very early age showed signs of the talents which were destined to render him famous, but his studies were at first directed by French tutors, who did their best to make him forget that he was a Russian. Fortunately for him, his nurse, Arina Rodionovna, had her share also in his education, and, by the songs and stories of which she possessed an unfailing store, she nurtured and developed in his mind a taste for such fruits of the imagination as were of home growth. Still he was long known among his comrades by the nickname of "the Frenchman," due in part to his knowledge of French, and in part also to his vivacious manner. Having from his early boyhood revelled in reading, he soon joined the band of youthful poets whom he found in the halls of the Tsarskoe Selo Lyceum, and even amidst the amusements into which he plunged after accepting a post under the Minister for Foreign Affairs in 1817, he contrived to carry on his poetical pursuits. In 1820 appeared his *Ruslan and Ludmila*, the first really original poem of which Russia can boast, the first success in that country of the Romantic school. Founded on one of the old Popular Tales, descriptive of the abduction of a Slavonic Helen by a demoniacal Paris, its plot cannot now greatly command itself to our judgment. But the poem deserves no small credit when the circumstances attending its composition are taken into account, and its heroine is as charming as are its pictures of Slavonic life and scenery.

About this time Poushkin had his first difficulty with the Government, but it resulted only in his being sent in an official capacity to South Russia. There he spent the greater part of four years, during which time he made acquaintance also with the majestic mountains of the Caucasus and the picturesque coasts of the Crimea, and produced a number of poems which show how deep an impression had been left upon his imagination by the grandeur and beauty of those scenes. One of the best of his pieces, "The Gipsies," is said to have been due to a chance meeting, during one of his wanderings at that time, with a band of gipsies, in whose camp he abode for several days. In 1824 a disagreement with his official chief led to his being obliged to lead a somewhat secluded life in the province of Pskof, spending a good deal of his time in listening to his old nurse's tales, and in studying Shakspeare, who now began to supplant Byron in his affections. These tranquil pursuits were interrupted by the outbreak of the military insurrection of December 1825, which troubled the accession of Nicholas to the throne, and in which Poushkin would probably have taken part had he been in St. Petersburg. However this may be, he made his peace next year at Moscow with the Emperor, who ever afterwards treated him with the greatest kindness. In 1829 he published his *Poltava*, a poem in honour of Peter the Great, and in 1830 he completed *Eugeny Onegin*, by far his most remarkable work, and one of the most original he produced, although confessedly written under the influence of Byron's *Don Juan*. In it is most vividly described that languor, that want of rational and manly enjoyment, which was then the

* *Russian Romance*. By Alexander Serguevitch Poushkin. Translated by Mrs. J. Buchan Telfer (*née* Mouravieff). London: Henry S. King & Co. 1875.

The Demon: a Poem. By Michael Lermontoff. Translated from the Russian by Alexander Condie Stephen. London: Trübner & Co. 1875.

bane of Russian fashionable life, and from which Poushkin himself suffered acutely. His quick and jealous temper moreover was for him the cause of many sufferings, leading him eventually, six years after his marriage, into a quarrel with a Baron Dantes, the adopted son of the Dutch Minister at the Court of St. Petersburg. A duel ensued, in which Poushkin was mortally wounded, and soon afterwards he died. His death took place in the early part of 1837, before he had completed his thirty-eighth year.

Poets' prose is, as a rule, notoriously good, and Poushkin's is no exception. The stories which Mrs. Telfer has translated were written in prose, and in an easy and simple style which would at any time be meritorious, but which deserved special praise at the time when these tales were published. The chief feature in the longest of their number, the "Captain's Daughter," is the picture it offers of the insurrection headed by Pugachev, the Cossack Pretender to the throne, whose history Poushkin wrote, thereby obtaining much Court favour and a large pecuniary reward. The other tales are sketches of Russian life, which are well worthy of being attentively read, even if their literary merits do not seem to be very exalted to eyes accustomed to the work of English and French novelists.

Great as was the influence of Byron in the case of Poushkin, it was still more powerful in that of Lermontof. Shakespeare, as we have seen, diverted the ideas of the author of *Evgeny Onegin* into a new and more healthy channel, but the author of *The Demon* remained all his life true to the original god of his idolatry. Had he lived a little longer, however, and had his life proved rather more sunny, he might perhaps have followed the example of the band of Russian writers who took Scott as their model instead of Byron. Unfortunately his brief career was clouded by constant troubles. Cursed by a morbid love of self, painfully conscious of his want of good looks, and impelled by a restless desire to shine in a circle composed of persons richer and nobler, but at the same time less intellectually gifted, than he was, Michael Lermontof consumed his own heart, a prey to unfulfilled desires, and constantly fostering a savage indignation against a society of which he saw the evil, but from which he could not bear to sever himself. Born in the autumn of 1815 in Moscow, he was educated in the country, carefully tended by a doting grandmother, but not initiated into popular lore like Poushkin by a Russian nurse. While preparing for, and while attending the classes of, the University of Moscow, from which he was expelled as one of the hissons of an unpopular Professor of criminal law, the young Lermontof began to write poetry, and he continued to do so after he had entered the army. In 1837 a poem of his on Poushkin's death, the closing lines of which were very uncomplimentary towards the aristocratic world, resulted in his being sent to the Caucasus. At the end of a year he was allowed to return to St. Petersburg, where he published *The Demon*, as well as another poem, the scene of which also was laid among the mountains by which his imagination was as deeply impressed as Poushkin's had been. Due to the same influences also was the prose story he soon afterwards brought out, *The Hero of Our Time*, which has been translated into German thrice, into English twice, into French twice, into Danish twice, and once into Polish. In 1840 a duel with the son of the French Ambassador again led to Lermontof's exile, and he was sent a second time to the Caucasus. Thence he returned to St. Petersburg for a short time, during which he seemed incessantly a prey to gloom and discontent, and in April 1841 he rejoined his regiment in the Caucasus. Soon after his arrival he became involved in a quarrel with one of his comrades, Martynof, and insisted, in spite of the earnest remonstrances of his friends, on provoking a duel which proved fatal to him. It took place near Piatigorsk on July 15. At the first fire Lermontof was struck by a bullet which went straight to his heart. He sank quietly to the ground, sighed twice, and died. He had not yet completed his twenty-sixth year.

Had he breathed the open air more, and the vivified atmosphere of the saloon or the barrack less, and had not his hot and turbulent nature ended by cutting short his career, Lermontof might have become a world-renowned poet. For there was real power within him, and he possessed to a high degree the genuine inspiration of one who is born a singer. His brilliant "Song about Ivan Vasilievich," an imitation, so far as form goes, of the old builinas or historical poems, shows to what a height of true feeling he could rise when he freed himself from the "Byronism" which led him and some of his contemporaries to study and describe nothing but certain morbid mental processes, and when he had recourse, as Poushkin so often had, to that pure well of Russian poetry which the memory of the common people had served to keep undefiled. How far the poem which Mr. Stephen has selected for translation will be accepted by English readers as a work of genius it is hard to predict. Its theme is not novel, nor is it likely to commend itself to the taste of the present day. In it we see the spirit of evil sweeping through space, a prey to the scorn and hate which the poet so often felt raging within his own breast. Presently, however, he falls in love with a Georgian maiden, and eventually succeeds in making her his own. But she dies, and in spite of all his efforts her soul escapes from him, borne into heaven by angelic arms, and he is left "alone, as formerly, in the universe without hope and without love."

"The similarity of the subject with that of *Faust*, and of the character with that of Lucifer in *Cain*, will doubtless strike all at first," says Mr. Stephen. But he thinks that on closer perusal the reader will find a certain originality in Lermontof's conception of the demon, and a great charm in his description of "the soften-

ing effect that love is able to produce for the time being on the impersonation of all evil." To our own eyes the chief merits of the original poem seem to be the musical flow of its language, and the picturesqueness of its descriptions of scenery. Of neither of these is it easy, if indeed it be possible, to give an adequate idea in a translation. By way of a specimen of the style adopted by the present translator, who appears to be well acquainted with his original poem, and to have done his best "to convey, as much as possible, some of the quaint complication, yet musical flow, that is so conspicuous and attractive in it," we will quote his opening stanza:—

The exiled Demon, Spirit of Despair,
Was flying o'er earth's sinful climes ;
While in his weary brain rose, dark and bare,
Remembrances of happier times—
When, pure and holy, in the realms of light
He shone amid God's Cherubim ;
When, coursing in its golden tracks at night,
The fleeting comet ever would delight
To interchange a smile with him ;
When, through the circling ether's vast extent,
Thirsting some knowledge to achieve,
He watch'd the movements of the firmament,
And all its wonders could perceive ;
When he could love and still believe,
First of creation, happy and devout,
Guiltless of sin and ignorant of doubt ;
Nor had his tranquil mind best
A range of fruitless centuries past in ill. . . .
His brain could hold no more. . . . and yet
The past, the lost came crowding still.

The *Demon* has not been so often translated as the *Hero of Our Times*; but there exist two French versions of it, as well as one in German. Lermontof's minor poems also have been twice translated into German, one of the translators being Bodenstedt, and twice into French. So that he is by no means a writer with whom the Western world is entirely unacquainted.

THE EPIGRAMMATISTS.*

If it were not already pretty fully established that the true and laudable type of epigram is the Greek of the Anthology, and not the Latin or the French, the question would be narrowed to the very verge of settlement by Mr. Garnett's article on the subject in the new edition of the *Encyclopaedia Britannica* (vol. ii. pp. 103-6), wherein, after having given proofs in his *Idylls and Epigrams* of intimate appreciation of the Greek originals, he gives a concise estimate of their merits and the history of their long hold upon the world of letters. A body of fugitive poetry, the first contributions to which date as far back as Simonides, whilst it received constant accessions up to the appearance of the Circle of Agathias in the time of Justinian, and which, having swelled to the bulk of 4,500 pieces by 300 writers, was welded into one collection during the temporary revival of letters in the tenth century, must have possessed some more perennial charm than the "sting" which is the essence of the modern conception; and it is impossible to overstate the debt of subsequent literature to the Greek Anthology for bright ideas, tersely-put phrases and fancies, and airy conceits, the destiny of which is to acclimatize themselves in every civilized soil and to take fresh life, whilst the satire, which is a main part of the later type of epigram, falls stale and flat after a couple of generations. No one who takes in hand Mr. Dodd's new edition of the *Epigrammatists*, in which, after the advice of his critics, he has filled the space occupied in the first edition by fragments of idylls and odes with *bona fide* translations of epigrams from Jacob's "Anthology," and with illustrative parallels from modern literature in foot-notes, will refuse to accept Mr. Garnett's assertion that "the influence" of the Anthology "on European literature will be appreciated in proportion to the inquirer's knowledge of each," and that "the further his researches extend the greater will be his astonishment at the extent to which the Anthology has been laid under contribution for thoughts which have become household words in all cultivated languages, and at the beneficial effect of the imitation of its brevity, simplicity, and absolute verbal accuracy on the undisciplined luxuriance of modern genius." A further claim is urged for it in regard to its historical continuity, when the perusal of the entire collection is likened to assisting at the "disinterment of an ancient city where generation has succeeded generation on the same site, and each stratum of soil enshrines the vestiges of a distinct epoch; but where all epochs, nevertheless, combine to constitute an organic whole, and the transition from one to the other is hardly perceptible."

For the thorough appreciation of this latter statement there needs, of course, a comprehensive insight into the wealth of the epigrammatic treasury, such as not even a handbook of epigrams, as full, and in many respects satisfactory, as Mr. Dodd's can afford at second-hand; but of the indebtedness of modern literature to this prolific fountain-head, the new edition of the *Epigrammatists* will afford much new and seasonable testimony. To go no further than the retrenched and improved specimens

* *The Epigrammatists*. By the Rev. Henry Philip Dodd, M.A. Second Edition, revised and enlarged. London: George Bell & Sons. 1875.

Nuga Bucolica. Scriptit W. P. A. Coll. Emman. Cant. olim Socia. London: George Bell & Sons. 1875.

Encyclopaedia Britannica. Ninth Edition. Vol. II. Art. "Anthology." Edinburgh: Adam & Charles Black. 1875.

of Sappho (pp. 4-7), which are in this edition epigrams proper, and not mere samples of her erotic vein, we observe a note on her "Epitaph on a Fisherman" illustrative of the ancient practice of carving on tombs the emblems of the craft of the defunct. Mention is here made of a picture referred to by Granger in his Biographical History as in the Lexington Collection, which has a device seemingly borrowed from the Greek. A woman stands on a tortoise, with a bunch of keys by her side, her finger on her lips, and a dove on her head. On the frame is a Latin epigram, believed to be by Sir Thomas More, which has been thus translated:—

Be frugal, ye wives, live in silence and love,
Nor abroad ever gossip or roam;
This learn from the lips, from the keys, and the dove,
And tortoise still dwelling at home.

Between the publication of the first and second editions Mr. Dodd has traced home the surmised debt to a Greek original. In Dubner's edition of the Anthologia, vii. 424, p. 354, will be found an epitaph on Lycidice by Antipater of Sidon, which has been freely translated by one of Mr. Dodd's conditors, and which certainly contains the germ of the very Greekish inscription on the picture in question. Amongst the specimens of Eriena's epigrams introduced happily into this edition is one "On a Portrait," which the editor thinks embodies a conceit foreign to so early and simple an age, the conceit being that only voice is lacking to give the picture life. Every one knows that the same compliment occurs in a hundred forms in reference to Myron's Cow; and to us it seems that the compliment may well have been coeval with the very earliest successful portrait. One would like to know the authorship of the clever modern variation of point (where silence, not speech, is made essential to the truth of the limner's work) in the following epigram:—

A lord of senatorial fame
Was by his portrait known outright ;
For so the painter play'd his game,
It made one even yawn at sight.
"Tis he, the same—there's no defect
But want of speech," exclaimed a flat ;
To whom the limner—"Pray, reflect,
"Tis surely not the worse for that."

Of Anacreon, too, we have in this edition more epigrams to the exclusion of love ditties and drinking songs, and we have to acknowledge the substitution of a four-lined translation of that on the drowned son of Cleenor (p. 11), suggested by ourselves in a review of the first edition, for a more diffuse version which appeared in it. Indeed, such flattering attention has been paid to our suggestions in other instances that we are emboldened to plead for the more complete rendering in another edition of the words γλυκεροῦ δὲ μελιφόρος οἰκαδε νόστογον ἥμπλακες, in Simonides's epitaph "On a Young Greek Exile's Grave" (p. 13), than "To Chio's sea-girt isle thou'lt come no more"; as well as (in pp. 44-5, "On a Bride Dying on her Wedding-Day," by Philip of Thessalonica), for a fuller expression of the last line, αἴρος ἐφ δραγμαῖς τερπόμενος λέχεσιν, which clearly points to Pluto's rape of Proserpine. It is just to say that this edition is richer in samples of Theocritean epigram also, and that such additions have been generally borrowed from the excellent translation of Mr. Calverley. The value at which the editor rates the Greek epigram proper must not be assessed by the mere calculation of the pages he allots to the "Greek Epigrammatists" section, inasmuch as in the annotations to the rest of his work translations from the Anthology are continually introduced, so as to make this edition a more considerable repertory of this class and period of poetry for the English reader than any other we are acquainted with. A retrenchment has been made in the "Ancient Latin" section, with manifest advantage. The excision of scraps of Tibullus, Catullus, and Propertius has made way for more of Martial, and of Martial at his best, the selection being such as to exhibit his grace of description as well as his satiric power. Mr. Dodd corrects an error into which we had been led in ascribing to James Harris, the author of *Hermes*, a version of Martial's epigram (i. 14) on Paetus and Arria, which is due to Dr. John Hoadley. In atonement we present him with a neat parallel to the sentiment of that epigram from the pen of the scholarly Gray, who, in an epitaph on Mrs. Clark, has the lines:—

In agony to death resign'd,
She felt the wound she left behind.

Amongst translations from Martial's *Epigrams*, the editor has had strength of mind enough to include a free and lively, but happy translation of that to Rufus (ii. 48), from the pages of the *Graphic*.

We take some credit to ourselves for a clamour which has revived the appreciation of the mediæval and Italo-Latin epigrammatists, who mostly followed the Greek model, and wrote with a grace and refinement worthier of the Greek Anthology than their predecessors in their chosen language. Articles in the *Quarterly* and *Contemporary Reviews* have endorsed this appreciation, and the more this source of true epigram-writing is approached, the more correct value will be set on it as a model, and the more will it be recognized as a measure by which modern work of the kind may be tested. A good many of the samples in the second edition are borrowed with acknowledgment from the articles referred to; but there are yet one or two which we should like to see amended. Two epigrams of Santolius (162-3), from the French *Anas*, are needlessly diffuse in the translation. We cannot praise the version selected for exhibiting Jerome Amaltheus's epigram on the "Two Beautiful Monoculi," p. 128. Ralp's version of "An Hour-glass as a Lover's

Tomb," by the same brilliant Venetian, hardly does it the justice of which Ben Jonson's translation clearly fails. The original is in p. 59 of Wright's *Delitiae Delitiarum*. Ralp's version will be found in p. 129 of the *Epigrammatists*. We offer the following as at any rate a closer transcript of the mind of the original writer:—

This dust, which metes the hours as they pass,
Each passage clearly noted through the glass,
Was once Alcippus. Smitten by the flashes
Of Galla's eyes the wretch was turned to ashes ;
Ashes designed by their unrest to show
That no such thing as rest can lovers know.

There is something wanting also to Mr. Dodd's version of an epigram to a lazy lawyer by *Martialis Monerius*, a French poet of the fifteenth century. The original runs:—

Sorbice, te juris vehemens, nis, incitat ardor,
Terretur studii nis salebrosa via :
Non quia difficile est non audes, Sorbice, niti ;
Sed quia non audes, Sorbice, difficile est.

It is scarcely represented by a version which does not even tell what the hard study is:—

Th' incentive of duty urg'd him long,
Sorbicus stoutly declares ;
But study's too hard, he complains ; and strong
The dread of failure, he swears.

We submit as an alternative:—

Did not the toils of study you retard,
Sorbice, you might at legal fame arrive ;
You do not shrink from law because 'tis hard,
But it is hard because you will not strive.

On the other hand, there are several epigrams in this section, such as that on the beggar Cerdò by Stephen Pasquier or Pascasius, p. 141, which Mr. Dodd has handled very successfully. His critical discrimination, too, is always equal to the occasion, as where, in p. 252, giving Crashaw's famous Latin epigram on the Miracle at Cana of Galilee, he reads, "Nympha," not *Lympha*, in the concluding line:—

Nympha pudica Deum vidit et erubuit.

We cannot however, assign the same praise to Aaron Hill's version as to others found in Mr. Grosart's edition of Crashaw. There is a rare supply of models yet untried and unturned in the *Delitiae Delitiarum*, by the study and manipulation of which young epigrammatists may keep their hand in. And that the knack is not gone may be seen from the Latin and English versions (we know not which is the original and which the copy) of one and the same epigram written by a scholarly soldier and fisherman. A salmon is supposed, by favour of Apollo, thus to address his fair captor:—

Non pictæ capior deceptus imagine musæ :
Me fatoe forma succubuisse tue.
Deprecor haud morte : tantum me, me extrahe vivo ;
Suvae erit in tali, suave, perire manu.
Not artificial flies my fancy took ;
Nature's own magic lured me to your hook.
Play me no more ! No thought to 'scape have I ;
But land me, land me, at your feet to die.

Both these are undoubtedly smart. A little *brochure* of epigrams by a former college tutor, entitled *Nugæ Bucolicæ*, is full of even more finished *jeux d'esprit* on passing politics and events clothed in Martialian Latin. Perhaps they would be more widely enjoyable if they were less personal, and this very drawback is one secret of the inferiority of the epigram which insists upon its sting. Thus we had almost forgotten the "Collier" appointment till we read the following:—

Index creatur ecce Carbonarius,
Vetante lege, calculo Leto tamen.
At qui creavit, calculis illum omnibus
Omnes magis carbone quam cretâ notant.—P. 14.

Another generation will have to go to their Biographical Dictionaries to interpret the point of this about John Stuart Mill:—

Millius illæ ὄρφος sortem est expertus iniquam :
Non habuit matrem, non habuitque Deum.
Sed puerum Doctrina eduxerat, arida nutrix ;
In quo loco sacri numinis uxor erat.—P. 28.

Nevertheless, in his elected line of epigram-writing W. P. A. manifests a decided aptness.

Through the copious section of "Modern Epigrammatists" it would be hypercritical to desire a pleasanter guide than Mr. Dodd, and he has gone far towards perfecting his work by a supplement which, while chiefly given up to these, traces their obligation to mediævalists and ancients in the foot-notes. Here and there it would be well if an impostor could be shown the door, as e.g. in p. 385, Dr. Johnson's "Hermit hoar," which is a parody rather than an epigram. Such clearances would leave room for more yet unpublished samples of divers kinds. For instance, of the play on words there is a remarkable example at p. 297, Nat Lee's mad retort to Sir Roger L'Estrange, who visited him in an asylum:—

Faces may alter, names can't change ;
I am strange Lee altered, you are still Lé-strange.

Another and more modern illustration might be found in the epigram on Mr. Stone, a canon of Canterbury, declining to have his arms with those of the other canons placed up in the Cathedral Library:—

Blame not, O friends, that, 'mid the armorial host,
Blazoned and sculptured, I am blank alone.
Beauty when unadorned is beauty most ;
And stone uncarved best representeth Stone.

In one instance (p. 202, an epigram of William Gamage—A.D. 1613—on "Coyte Castle and Radyr House exclaiming on Time") we could wish for an explanatory note to say that Radyr and Coyte are, and have been for two centuries, little more than names of a dilapidated mansion and castle in Glamorganshire; and that Gamage, a Welshman, knew them as such in his day. Otherwise, except here and there a printer's error, as in p. 19, "Nicias" and "Mnasaleus" for *Nicias* and *Mnasalens*, there is commendably little to find fault with in this enlarged edition of the *Epigrams*.

PROTESTANT MISSIONS IN INDIA.*

THE author of this history is no inexperienced writer. We have reviewed in these columns his book upon the Tribes and Castes of India, and a previous work upon the City of Benares had already brought him into notice. The present volume is necessarily one of compilation; it abounds with long quotations from the books and reports of missionaries, and, although the author has previously shown himself to be master of a clear and lively style, the subject and his authorities have here prevailed, and the result is a book in "Missionese." It is right, perhaps, that it should be so; for although this style of writing is unattractive to the indifferent, any other style might be distasteful to those who are specially interested in the subject. The book shows signs of haste and a want of condensation, but it is full of information, historical, descriptive, and statistical. In it the progress of mission work in India may be followed, and its results ascertained. The success achieved may not answer the expectations of the sanguine; but a clear and decided impression has in many places been made, which is full of hope and encouragement. There is truth in the plea of the missionary that the force employed in the mission work has been inadequate for making any general impression upon the population so vast as that of India; there is also truth in the observation upon the other side, that the results are hardly commensurate with the force employed. But the conversion of a great and varied population, unless it is effected by some unseen influence, some sudden and uncontrollable impulse, must of necessity be a work of time, and the time should be reckoned, not by the life of man, but by the life of nations. In 1705 the first Protestant missionaries, Ziegenbalg and Plutschau, landed in India. They were sent out by the Danes, who had then held possession of Tranquebar for more than eighty years. Denmark had been tardy in recognizing her duties as a Christian State, but she was twenty years in advance of her more powerful neighbour England; and when she had once entered upon the work, she pursued it with zeal and perseverance, while the early efforts of the English were faint and often received every kind of discouragement and opposition from the governing authorities in India. Sometimes there were governors and officials who favoured the exertions of the missionaries, and it happened more than once that the Government was glad to avail itself, in its dealings with native princes, of the knowledge of the missionaries and of the esteem in which they were held. But the Government for a long time maintained an attitude of cold distrust and opposition, and frequently took steps for the repression and removal of missionaries. This has often been bitterly complained of. Mr. Sherring says:—"The principle of non-interference in the religious prejudices of a people may sometimes be carried to excess. It is certain that from the commencement of British rule in India down to the present time we have shown greater forbearance towards the religious scruples of the races of India than they ever showed towards one another, or than any other power ever displayed in its treatment of a conquered nation." The principle thus censured is surely deserving of commendation rather than reproach. The people have a right to be protected against all authoritative or meddling interference with their prejudices, and as Mr. Sherring must well remember the Mutiny, he ought to have borne in mind the causes which are commonly believed to have helped in provoking it. The prevention by a Christian Government of mission work was an un-Christian act, a stigma upon its own faith, and impolitic in its worldly aspect; but rash and over-zealous interference required to be carefully guarded against. If the Government in its early days had countenanced and encouraged attacks upon the religion of its subjects, the result would probably have been disastrous not only to its own power, but also to missionary enterprise. All restrictions upon preaching and teaching have long been removed, for they ceased to be necessary when the natives had learned that they were free not only to reject, but to oppose, the doctrines which they could not receive.

The first missions were sent to the South of India, and met with some success. The personal character of the missionaries won the esteem even of those who rejected their teaching. Ziegenbalg, and Schwartz, who came after him, were both held in the highest estimation, and the latter received extraordinary marks of personal trust and confidence from the Raja of Tanjore, who made him the guardian of his infant son. It was not till 1758 that a mission was sent to Calcutta. This also proceeded from the Danes. But at this period there was a religious awakening in England, and Indian missions attracted notice and support. Carey, afterwards the famous Dr. Carey, was sent out, but he was

obliged to make his way to Calcutta surreptitiously in a Danish vessel. He met with friends who were willing to aid him in his labours, but the repressive action of the Government left him little opportunity. He applied himself to the study of the languages and engaged in the manufacture of indigo at Malda. While he was thus employed four missionaries arrived from England, and the Government endeavoured to prevent their landing. Thereupon they hastened to Serampore, a small Danish settlement fifteen miles from Calcutta, and placed themselves under the protection of the Governor, who refused to deport them. This led to Carey's proceeding to Serampore, and making it the headquarters of the Baptist mission. There he established that printing press which has made the name of Serampore famous to all Indian missionaries and to every Indian scholar. The translation of the Holy Scriptures into the Indian languages was the first and dearest object of all the early missionaries. Ziegenbalg began a translation into Tamil only two years after his arrival in India, and the printing of a Bengali version was the first work of the Serampore press. Carey was a man of great linguistic powers, and upon the establishment of the College of Fort William the Government appointed him Professor of Sanskrit and Bengali. He threw his salary into the Mission Fund, and the Serampore press was kept continually at work in printing translations of the Bible into various languages, Sanskrit, Persian, Uriya, Marathi, and even Chinese. From that time till now the work of translation has gone on, so that there remains not in India a language or even a dialect of any importance which does not possess a perfect or partial translation of the Holy Scriptures. The services rendered by missionaries in acquiring and diffusing a knowledge of Indian languages are incalculable. The men were often called upon to assist the authorities as interpreters, and their grammars, dictionaries, and translations were in many cases the earliest and the only ones that students had to work with. Oriental scholarship has advanced far beyond the limits it had reached in the days of Carey, but a great debt of respect and gratitude is due to him and his coadjutors.

Two things particularly attract notice in reading this book—the great variety of missions, and the many various ways in which mission work is carried on. A specification of the names of the different missions would fill many lines, for there are at least thirty-three of them. But there is a wholesome and cheering absence of contention and sectarian strife. Though the different missions cannot work in unison, they, with the exception of one mission, refrain from interfering with each other's converts, and keep to their own fields of labour. Of all the modes of carrying on the work, the education of the young is the one most favoured, and that which is generally most effective. Preaching in the highways and at places of public resort has much fallen into disuse, for it was not found to be productive of good and lasting results. Some impression was occasionally made by men who had exceptional knowledge of language and powers of persuasion, but the effect was often transitory and unsatisfactory. Education, both of the lower and higher kind, was carefully fostered by the missionary authorities, and the cause of education in India at a critical period received a most important and decisive bias from the sagacity and foresight of a single man. In 1829 Dr. Duff was sent out to Calcutta as a missionary by the Church of Scotland, and one of the chief objects of his mission "was the establishment of a collegiate institution, which should confer the highest education on native youths." At the very outset the question arose as to the language in which the instruction was to be conveyed. The local Bengali was at once acknowledged to be insufficient for the purpose, and the choice was reduced to two languages, Sanskrit and English. As Dr. Duff himself has stated it, the question was, "Which shall hereafter be established as the language of learning in India? Which will prove the most effective instrument of a large, liberal, and enlightened education?" In these days it is difficult to conceive that there could have been any question to decide, but at that time the Government, the scholars, the practice and experience of missions, and the opinion of the European community were all in favour of the Sanskrit and against English. Fortunately Dr. Duff had that which a man in his position seldom enjoys, full authority, and he decided in favour of English. So he opened his college with five young men as students; in the course of the first week they had increased to two hundred and fifty, and a public examination at the close of the first year removed all doubt as to the success of the institution. In a few years the average attendance increased to eight hundred, and the Governor-General publicly spoke of the "unparalleled results" which had flowed from the working of the college. From that time to the present the study of English has continually advanced and spread. A knowledge of English is the ambition of all the aspiring intelligence among the youth of India, and hundreds, even thousands, of Indians are now able to read and speak English with marvellous accuracy and fluency. All the stores of English literature have thus been opened to them, they have learned to understand their rulers and their modes of thought, and a community of interest and feeling has been brought about which no other means could have effected.

Missionaries have also rendered another great service to India in respect of female education. This was a matter upon which the prejudices of the natives were strong and the timidity of the Government great. But time and good example are wearing away the dislike entertained, and many females now attend the numerous schools which are open to receive them. Besides the public schools a strong effort is being made to carry education into the homes of the wealthy and the proud, who disdain to allow their

* *The History of Protestant Missions in India from their commencement in 1705 to 1872.* By the Rev. M. A. Sherring, Missionary of the London Missionary Society. With an Illustrative Map of India. London: Trübner & Co.

female children to go to the schools. Educated ladies, who are called "Zenana women," visit the houses of the wealthy, and are often gladly received. They impart secular instruction as well as religious teaching. Some success is said to have attended their exertions, but of this the outer world is unable to judge.

Mr. Sherring is very candid in his statements, and seems to be especially desirous of not overrating the results of mission labour. He more than once has to speak of relapses into heathenism or semi-heathenism, of old heathen superstitions and customs which cling to the converts, of the low standard of religion and morality which is common among native Christians, and of the many disappointments and trials which all missionaries have to endure. The great majority of the converts, as many as four-fifths of the whole, come from the lower classes, though many have also been gained from the higher and more intelligent castes. Some of them are men of education and ability, who serve as ministers, preachers, and teachers. Caste has been a great obstacle and difficulty, as it usually is, to civilizing influences. Some Roman Catholic missions, and one Lutheran mission, have succumbed to its influence, and have sanctioned its retention. Even in some Christian communities, where it was discountenanced by the missionaries, it continued to be secretly recognized, and the writer records one instance of men of superior caste demanding a separate cup for themselves in the Sacrament. A resolute stand is now generally made against caste, as an institution utterly irreconcilable with Christianity, but the strength of this cherished distinction is such that there is still danger of its injuriously affecting the Christianity of India. A large part of the converts come from the aboriginal races, who are not of Aryan blood, and are not cramped and bound by Hindu caste prejudices. In Chota Nagpore, two hundred miles from Calcutta on the west of Bengal proper, a great success has been gained among the Kols, more than twenty thousand of whom had embraced Christianity up to the end of the year 1871. Their moral and social condition has greatly improved since their conversion, and the description given of their churches and services is particularly interesting. A similar success has attended the mission to the Santals in the same neighbourhood. That the success is a real one is proved by the fact of some Hindus of Calcutta having requested the Government to render them the same assistance as that granted to the missionaries for the establishment of schools among the Santals. The chief object is to introduce Hinduism, but the Government, maintaining its neutral position in religious matters, has promised its aid towards the establishment and maintenance of schools if a suitable fund is raised by subscription. A similar, though not so great, a success has been gained among the Gonds. In the extreme south of the peninsula there are large numbers of converts at the old mission stations. In Travancore there are said to be 32,000 and in Tinnevelly 59,000, but fresh accessions are now few and far between:—

In the older districts [says Dr. Caldwell] the Christian Church has become more or less stationary. . . . The heathen are beginning to reconcile themselves to the Christianity of their Christian neighbours as a transmitted, inherited form of religion peculiar to a certain circle of families, and as such entitled to the profound respect of conservative-minded Hindus; and the Christians, if left to their own ideas, are beginning to accept the retention of heathenism by their heathen neighbours as an accomplished fact, which may be regretted, but which cannot be helped.

Thus we see repeated what has so often been seen before, and in so many parts, a religious fervour working for a time and influencing large numbers of people, but gradually cooling down and making no further advance. Some fresh spark, some new stimulus, may, it is to be hoped, again warm it into life and give it a living and active force. While this stagnation has fallen upon the missions of the end of the peninsula, a great movement has taken place three hundred miles higher up in Cuddapah and Nellore, where the converts have increased more than ten thousand in ten years, and where the work of conversion is still active and successful.

The author at the end of each chapter gives a summary of the number of converts, congregations, ministers, &c., of each mission. It would have been well if he had brought all these into one general account at the end of the book, so that comparisons might be readily made and the grand totals easily ascertained. There has been no dearth of books upon missions in India, but most of them have dealt only with special portions; the larger works are now scarce, and are incomplete from lapse of time. A book of this kind was wanted, and will no doubt be eagerly read and consulted by the many who are interested in mission work.

the copy from which it is printed is a tolerably exact transcript of a chronicle written mostly from time to time as the events occurred, the dates being given very exactly, as to the days of the week, month, and year, frequently with the addition of notices of the festivals of the Church and their eves and vigils. In one or two cases, indeed, the diary supplies a correction of a date which has hitherto been mistaken. Occasionally we observe a wrong date, which seems to have arisen from the transcriber having been unable to distinguish between the figures 1 and 2 of the original manuscript, unless indeed he himself writes these figures in such a way that they are not easily distinguishable. The editor has stated by way of preface all that could be known or discovered as to the history of the manuscript and its writer and his family, and has in the most business-like way determined beyond all doubt who was its author, although no name of a writer is appended to it, and there were no means of judging from the handwriting of a scribe who was a mere copyist.

The earlier part of the Chronicle is nothing but a plagiarism from Richard Arnold's *Customs of London*, of which the editor considers that the present work may be described as a continuation. From the year 1520 to the end of 1547, where the present volume concludes, it is of the highest interest, as it is unmistakably the work of a contemporary who was an eye-witness of much that he describes, and evidently possessed the best means of knowing facts of the time which did not occur under his own immediate observation; and even when the writer states his own inferences as regards certain points, his statements are frequently of considerable value. We suppose the editor has followed the spelling of the manuscript. We cannot, of course, affect to regret this, although it must have given both himself and the compositor a great deal of unnecessary trouble. But the spelling of a copyist of the seventeenth century, which may have varied considerably from the original of the sixteenth, was not on philological grounds worth preserving. If the work had been printed from the autograph, we should have pronounced differently as regards this point.

It will easily be understood that the value of such a Chronicle as this consists, not in supplying us with any new readings of history, so much as in furnishing small supplements to accounts of transactions with which we were already tolerably familiar; and as the writer is prior in point of time to Stow, Holinshed, Grafton, and even Hall, it may be spoken of as being at the least as trustworthy as any of these early authorities. There are several small facts which are of no great importance, but which are made a little more certain than they were before by being chronicled in this volume. Thus the marriage of Henry VIII. to Jane Seymour has always been correctly assigned by historians to the 20th of May, the very day after the execution of Anne Boleyn; and the fact, it must be admitted, is of some importance in our estimate of Henry's desire to get rid of his second wife to make room for a Queen who might be more fruitful of a male heir than Anne had proved. But the evidence of this was very feeble till the publication of the last volume of Mr. Rawdon Brown's *Venetian Despatches*, and it is of some importance that the fact should be stated, as it is here, by a person who was living at the time in London. The survival of Jane Seymour for twelve days instead of two after the birth of Edward VI. had been established beyond all doubt; but it is nevertheless interesting to have this again stated in a diary of the time which is another independent witness to the fact. The fact itself is of course of very small importance, though it has been made more of than it deserves in relation to the story told by Nicolas Sanders about the Queen having been subjected to the Cesarian operation in order to effect the safe delivery of the prince. It has been said that the story is less likely if she survived twelve than if she had only outlived the operation two days; but it may be observed that Sanders is quite accurate as far as he states anything about the case, and there is really no reason for supposing that he invented a story which adds so small a degree of infamy to the already sufficiently damaged character of Henry VIII.

Of other small matters for the first time brought to light in this Chronicle, we may mention the names of the preachers at Paul's Cross in the early part of the year 1536. The author probably was present at all these sermons, as he was living in the neighbourhood. The bishops who preached there were all under orders to prove that the Bishop of Rome hath no jurisdiction more than any other bishop beyond the precincts of his own particular diocese. How this doctrine was to be reconciled with the metropolitan powers claimed by English Princes it is not easy to see; but it served the King's purpose, and Cranmer, with his usual servility, seems to have gone beyond all his brethren in executing the King's orders, for he actually undertook on the festival of the Epiphany, which fell on a Sunday this year, to demonstrate from the sayings of holy saints and doctors that the Bishop of Rome was Anti-Christ. The sermon by Tunstall, Bishop of Durham, on Quinquagesima Sunday, is given in epitome, and the writer describes what he had seen when he speaks of Cranmer and eight other bishops being in front of the preacher, with four monks of the Charterhouse, who were brought to hear it after they had denied the King to be supreme head of the Church. He also mentions the curious fact that several lords stood behind the preacher within the pulpit. It is notable that the preachers were every one of them of the King's own promotion. Whilst we are on the subject of sermons, we may mention what does not appear in this part of the diary, but what is referred to by way of anticipation in the editor's preface, that Hooper, the new Bishop of Gloucester, in 1550 preached at the funeral of the author's cousin, the Earl of Southampton, whose deposition from the Chancellorship was almost the first act of

WROTHESLEY'S CHRONICLE OF ENGLAND UNDER THE TUDORS.*

THE importance of this Chronicle induces us to notice the first instalment of it, which we hope soon to see supplemented by the remaining portion, which will probably be at least as interesting as the volume now before us. It is printed from a manuscript of the seventeenth century, and therefore not from the hand of Charles Wrothesley himself; but there can be no doubt that

* *A Chronicle of England during the Reigns of the Tudors, from A.D. 1485 to 1559.* By Charles Wrothesley, Windsor Herald. Edited, from a MS. in the possession of Lieut.-General Lord Henry H. M. Percy, K.C.B., V.C., F.R.G.S., by William Douglas Hamilton, F.S.A. Vol. I. Printed for the Camden Society. 1875.

Somerset's administration. It is most remarkable because the Chancellor, as well as his cousin, the writer of the Chronicle, had not the smallest sympathy with the fanatical opinions of Hooper, but were content with the amount of reform which had been carried on by the late King. Hooper could scarcely with honesty have committed himself to much of a panegyric of Chancellor Wriothesley.

The most graphic description in the diary is the narrative of the meeting of the King with Anne of Cleves at Rochester, on New Year's Day, 1540. The story is so different from anything that we meet with in historians that we think it worth while to extract the passage, premising only that we have modernized the spelling:—

The King's grace, with five of his privy Chamber, being disguised with clokes of marte with hoods, that they should not be known, came privately to Rochester, and so went up into the chamber where the said Lady Anne looked out at a window to see the bull-baiting that was that time in the court, and suddenly he embraced her and kissed and showed her a token that the King had sent her for her new year's gift, and she being abashed, not knowing who it was, thanked him, and so he communed with her; but she regarded him little, but always looked out of the window on the bull-baiting, and when the King perceived she regarded his coming so little, he departed into another chamber, and put off his cloke and came in again in a coat of purple velvet, and when the lords and knights did see his grace, they did him reverence, and then, perceiving the lords doing their duties, she humbled her grace lowly to the King's Majesty, and his grace saluted her again, and so talked together lovingly, and after took her by the hand and led her into another chamber, where they solaced their graces that night and till Friday afternoon, and then his grace took his leave and departed thence to Gravesend, and there took his barge and so went to Greenwich that night, and she rode to Dartford that night and lodged there till the morrow, and on Saturday she took her journey towards Greenwich, where, at the foot of Shooter's Hill, there was a pavilion set up for her grace, where met her the Earl of Rutland, &c.—P. 110.

This account of the first interview of the King with Anne of Cleves is more circumstantial than any that has yet appeared, as likewise is the continuation of the account down to the marriage ceremony which took place on January 6 in the Queen's closet at Greenwich. The whole is plainly the description of an eye-witness. The symptoms of a change coming over the spirit of the King, and his inclining from Crammer to Gardiner, is evidenced by the latter being chosen to preach the sermons at Court on the Fridays during Lent of this year; a very remarkable change when, as we gather from another passage in the Chronicle (p. 104), Hilsey, Bishop of Rochester, had had the admission of the preachers at Paul's Cross these three years and more—i.e. from about the beginning of 1536 to his death, which happened on August 4, 1539. And here again we must notice that this is the only record of the death of Hilsey, which is placed by Le Neve in 1538, whilst the fact that this writer mentions that he had managed the sermons at Paul's Cross for three years and more almost settles the disputed point of Hilsey's consecration to be of earlier date than 1537, though of course it does not prove what Strype asserts, that he was consecrated in September, 1535.

Persons who are not very conversant with the history of this reign will perhaps be surprised at the large amount of space taken up in this Chronicle with detailing the executions by hanging or burning which were so numerous from this time forward till the last year of Henry VIII. But though some are here recorded, as far as we know, for the first time, most of them have appeared in print before, and the reason of their being so circumstantially recorded is that the author actually witnessed most of them, though perhaps he can scarcely be acquitted of the charge of having a sort of fondness for detailing horrors even when he had not been present at the perpetration of them. Occasionally the accounts are even more horrible in their details than has hitherto been upon record.

There is one point connected with the suppression of the monasteries to which the author draws attention. It is well known that many of the monks were employed as secular clergy, and were presented to benefices for the express purpose of saving the expense of their pensions; but there are few records surviving which give us any information as to the mode of living of those who devoted themselves to the ordinary occupations of business. It appears from a remark made upon the marriage of the late Abbot of Warden with a nun who had been professed sixteen years at the Minories, that about the same time several priests had followed the examples of the monks, and had taken to themselves wives, and devoted themselves to secular employments; whilst, as regards other ecclesiastical matters which were in an unsettled state, it is quite worth while to have on record that as early as the year 1538, not only the *Te Deum* was sung in English, but at least in two places in the neighbourhood of London the "consecration of the sacrament of the altar was said in English" (p. 83). After the passing of the Act of the Six Articles, which obliged Crammer to dismiss his wife, the Chronicler says that it is reported that there are in England of priests and religious persons that have presumed to marry above three hundred persons, "which," he continues, "now by the said Act must be divorced, which is a godly Act, and shall cause the spirituality to show good examples by their life" (p. 103).

It is impossible to enumerate the pieces of information on small points which this Chronicle contains, and we shall conclude with assigning it its value, which we consider to be quite as great as that of the Grey Friars' Chronicle or Henry Machyn's Diary, which were some years ago published by the same Society. The volume is well edited, but we should have been glad if the editor, when he makes doubtful statements in his notes—as, for instance, that Wriothesley and Rich "are said to" have tortured Anne Askewe

with their own hands—had given the original authority from which he derived his information. People would then have been able to judge of its authenticity for themselves.

LOVING AND LOTH.*

IT is annoying to have to confess that this book is disappointing. It is so brilliant in parts, and so original in some of its conceptions, that we are sincerely sorry to be compelled to find fault. It is difficult to say why it has fallen short of perfection; for it is bright, interesting, and with a vivid sense of humour manifest throughout, and it seems as if a very little more thought and study might have made it a really first-rate novel. The character, too, of Susie is original, and we have seen many a more inspired heroine carry off higher honours; nevertheless, the fact remains—*Loving and Lloth* falls short of its own standard, and has failed of the complete success that appears to have been not far from attainment.

The first fault that strikes us in the construction of the story—we will come to the technical faults of composition presently—is a certain want of unity in the characters. They seem to have been begun on one plan and finished on another; and this is more especially the case with Susie herself, who shifts rather than develops, and seems to have been originally intended for something quite different from what she finally becomes. She is represented as the very soul of truth and candour, truthful indeed almost to brutality, candid to ill manners; yet in the beginning of things we find her acting a part, the part of "child," when she is in reality seventeen, and that "for the promotion of her interests." She is a pale, plain, fortuneless girl, bidding "fair to be one of the shabbily-served many for whom no lover has ever sighed, and whom no suitor has wooed," but with a passionate longing to enjoy life, and "feeling herself an inadequate cause to produce any wished-for effect, aiming at having brighter fortunes brought to her by the person she loved best in the world—her mother." This mother, Mrs. Dawnay, married from the school-room, widowed while yet in her teens, was at four-and-thirty "still beautiful and redolent of youth." She and her ugly little daughter had roamed about on the Continent, in the way common to improvident widows with portionless daughters, till they were tired of it, and had now "nestled themselves down in the little home that had been left to Mrs. Dawnay by her dead mother":—

It was lonely, quaint, and rustic. They suffered whimsical tortures at first from terror of burglars, earwigs, and horned cattle; they exhausted the novel enjoyments of their own cow, their culinary experiments in their own kitchen, their pedestrian experiments of wandering off, and getting lost in lonely lanes.

Then came a weariness of this dull life; a sense of miss and loss after the thorny pleasures of other days. But this, too, passed; the current of their life flowed on evenly, if a little sluggishly. They had no events to mark the days with; monotonous and neutral-tinted, the hours succeeded each other. They got to know a few people about them; that is to say, they had a formal acquaintance with them: all but one.

This exception is Sir Alfred Ogle, who lived near their own rustic home in a fine old place, which Susie covets for her mother and herself. She thinks that, if Mère, as she calls her beautiful mamma—*mère en patois*—became Lady Ogle, there would be a great deal more enjoyment for them both, and a general lifting up of anxiety respecting short purses and long bills, multitudinous wants, and no money wherewith to supply them. And thinking this, she is not ashamed to plot and manœuvre for favours in a manner utterly unlike the frank straightforward Susie of the later development. Her object is to make Sir Alfred first patronize for pity, and then propose for love, always keeping to her pretence of childish ingenuousness and terrier-like brusquerie, pardonable in a girl of fifteen, though a more serious defect in one two years older; but we can scarcely imagine Susie as she is afterwards depicted condescending to any such pitiful devices or crooked measures. In that little episode in the garden when she puts on half-infantile, half-monkeyish airs on Mr. Eugene Everard's behalf, we are conscious of an unpleasant jar with the after presentation of absolute sincerity. That whole garden scene, indeed, is unpleasant, read by the light of the future working out of the story. In her affected *abandon*; the false ingenuousness of her description of how she had asked one of mamma's lovers to luncheon on her own responsibility, and "since he was reduced to a mere jellyfish by love," had given him cold veal as most in consonance with his condition; her pretended childlessness, as when she says suddenly, "The birds ate all my strawberries," and, sitting on the asparagus bed, threads a necklace of the red berries which she flings round Mr. Everard's neck and insists on his wearing—in all this we see the oddity that clings to her more or less throughout, but also we see a certain element of pretence which we cannot in any way reconcile with her after-self.

Mrs. Dawnay, too, seems to have been reconstructed according to a second idea; the second idea not quite matching the first. In the beginning she has just that dash of the half-adventuress about her proper to a fascinating widow with a lovely oval face, apple blossom in tint, and "crowned by ropes of waving golden hair," who has bills for furniture and millinery to the value of seven hundred pounds eleven shillings and sixpence, and not seven hundred pence wherewith to meet them; who receives with

* *Loving and Lloth. A Novel.* By the Author of "Rosa Noel" and "The Sisters Lawless." 3 vols. London: Richard Bentley & Son. 1875.

pronounced affability an old baronet of large fortune deeply in love with her; and allows herself to be corrected by her daughter's warning look when she says to him with a dreamy gentleness, *adpropos* of his nephew, "I like pretty boys." When she refuses Sir Alfred, and, rather than sell herself to a prosy old gentleman whom she does not love, writes to her sister-in-law, Aunt Adria, for help in her straits, and accepts, together with the cheque, the useful advice and offer that Susie shall go to London to perfect her education with Aunt Adria's girls, then we see the lines begin to change as in a dissolving view; and a sweet, lovely, indolent, but perfectly well-principled, woman takes the place of the half-adventurous we had been fearing would be offered to us. Still we do not much care for dissolving views in the characters of a novel. We prefer distinctness from the beginning.

In the conduct of her love affairs Miss Susie Dawnay is decidedly odd. She falls in love with Eugene Everard, Sir Alfred's nephew, and he does his best to ripen her childish fancy into a woman's passion; but though he flirts with her pretty cousin, Alice Willis, and makes hot love to Léontine, the Creole medium, before her eyes, she has not pride enough to banish him nor sense enough to doubt him. Meantime Ranicar Hungerford, who hates Eugene, and with cause, a grave, true, wealthy man, and passionately in love with this odd little girl, makes her an offer. Susie at first accepts, then throws over, the lover she had so often wished to win, in a manner scarcely at one with the frank determination which, it might have been expected, would have penetrated her character, not merely moulded her manners. Her waywardness on the first occasion might have passed, however, as the natural inclination of a girl to sacrifice her youth and freedom to a man whom she did not love, however much she might be flattered by his preference; but it becomes tiresome and inexplicable when repeated again and again, and after she must have confessed that she did love Ranicar and did desire his love to be given to her again. Such waywardness is mere folly. Equally inexplicable is Ranicar's unwearied pursuit of this reluctant Daphne. A proud man, who is really in love, would hardly suffer himself to be played fast and loose with, as he does, nor do we think that any man's love would have survived the rather severe shocks given it by Susie's remarkable frankness and apparent inconstancy—certainly not such a man as Ranicar Hungerford, were he or his like to be met with in real life.

Again, is the character of Eugene Everard quite true to itself? He is described as utterly worthless and selfish; a mere lady-killer, caring only to catch hearts, as an entomologist catches butterflies, to impale them one after the other on his corking pins. Granting this as the true view of his character, would he have married Léontine? He loved her in the way common enough among a certain class of men; but it was not the way that leads to marriage. Nor would Léontine herself have consented to a union that would give her but a meagre slice of bread and no butter to speak of. She was confessedly a young woman untroubled by squeamishness, and would have certainly preferred a lover with money to a husband without. Men so selfish as Eugene do not sacrifice themselves and all their worldly prospects in order to marry a purchasable Venus, now medium and now ballet-girl; still less do they plan an elopement with the wives of such men as Captain Eustace the Texan. They know the whole thing too well to run such a risk. To grant Eugene so much self-forgetfulness is to credit him with a certain strain of nobleness even in his evil, which is far from the author's intention. In all these discrepancies, then, we see haste or negligence. The book has not been thoroughly thought out, and therefore, in spite of its cleverness, it is disappointing and insufficient.

The author of *Loving and Loth* has an odd kind of diction. It is a queer jumble of fine writing and slipslop, hard words and inelegances, the like of which we do not remember to have read before. In describing a camp meeting out in America, this remarkable passage occurs:—"There was only the soft susurru of the branches that melted into the sin-dirge like another voice, faint, sad, and ethereal." We should scarcely expect the familiar colloquialism that follows immediately after:—"Hard by, rough shanties had been run up, and here the camp-meeting folk ate, and slept, and sheltered themselves." Nor should we have expected that an author who could write of the "soft susurru of the branches" would have lapsed into the vulgarity of—"He had found out the meaning of 'work' since he came to the Great Republic, had Everard." "The potential elements of Eugene's character were unchanged, and he was capable of vigorous activity still where his old proclivities were concerned," is one kind of diction; and "Abby, stopping squeezing a lemon to laugh," is another. Bright little bits of fun and humour are ill set in such a sentence as that which tells how Abby was "superintending the cracking of ice, which Eugene—having disposed of the milk—was making himself useful in." Ranicar Hungerford, when he quarrels with Eugene, says, "I antagonize with you no longer," which he certainly never would have said; nor, by the way, is it like an English gentleman to have a verbal wrangle with a very base travesty of Don Juan—a man who had broken his sister's heart, come between him and his love, put that loved one in worse than bodily peril, and proved himself base and bad all through. Men of breeding, when they are foes, do not wrangle. In spite, too, of all we had experienced of Susie's method of speech, we winced at her answer to Ranicar, when he questions her on her liking for Eugene. "Gone for ever," she says: "no more to be found again than a shilling spent a year ago." Her reply to his inquiry whether she would "like to have Everard go back in the steamer with her" is even worse.

She makes a wry face and says, "Would you like to eat a sugared oyster?" Nevertheless, in spite of all these shortcomings and mistakes, the book is clever and amusing; but we should say not equal to what the author could do if more care were taken to think out the plot, to form the characters, and to prune and polish the diction. He—or shall we say she?—has ideas, smartness, and facile fancy and originality; more steady study and greater thoroughness of work would make these qualities infinitely more valuable than they are now, when they are uncomfortably obscured by contradiction in character-painting, and slovenliness of style, though to the last—we will add in mitigation—brightened by some very choice and happy phrases.

FRENCH LITERATURE.

THE two volumes recently published* by M. Albert Sorel go far towards completing the mass of details which we already possess on the Franco-Prussian war. If the description of battles, sieges, and military operations is the chief element in this momentous chapter of contemporary history, it is equally indispensable that we should be acquainted with the negotiations which preceded, accompanied, and followed it. M. Sorel has contributed to our knowledge of these diplomatic transactions by a collection of valuable documentary evidence worked up in an admirable manner, and commented on with abundant tact and judgment. In order to understand thoroughly the character of the late war, we must study not only the incidents connected with the Hohenzollern candidature, but also the preliminaries of the battle of Sadowa, and even causes remoter still. It is curious to note the perseverance with which Napoleon III. endeavoured to secure for France important alliances in the anticipation of a war which appeared imminent many years before it actually broke out. The particulars given on the subject by M. Sorel are not generally known, and they refer to the negotiations begun by the Court of the Tuilleries with Russia, Denmark, Austria, and Italy. We all know how these schemes failed; and the abortive results of the later diplomatic efforts made after Sedan is ascribed by our author, first, to the revolutionary origin of the Government of September, and, secondly, to the utter incapacity of the men then at the head of affairs. Attached to the *Délégation des Affaires étrangères* at Tours and at Bordeaux, M. Sorel enjoyed the advantage of seeing the new Republican leaders at their work, and he confirms in every point the testimony borne by M. de Mazade to the deplorable inefficiency of ambitious demagogues, destitute both of genius and of special knowledge, *sans supériorité d'esprit ou de caractère*. The narrative of all these events is extremely painful, and the care taken by M. Sorel to preserve a tone of impartiality and moderation, whilst it justifies the title *Histoire diplomatique*, gives to the book a somewhat colourless appearance.

M. Ferdinand de Lesseps† was not long ago elected a member of the Académie des sciences on account of the services rendered by him to civilization and commerce in connexion with the Suez Canal. He now publishes in one volume all the letters, memoirs, and documents connected with that undertaking, and thus enables the reader to follow the progress of it from its beginning to its successful accomplishment. The first letter, bearing date Paris, July 8th, 1852, is addressed to M. Ruyssenaer, Consul-General of the Netherlands in Egypt; and it shows that as early as 1849 M. de Lesseps was studying the best means of cutting through the Isthmus, and of realizing a project the desirableness of which had struck both the Romans and the Ptolemies. Almost the last letter, written to Mr. Cobden, explains the advantages of the enterprise, and expresses regret at the opposition raised by Lord Palmerston's Government against it.

M. Pierron's edition of the *Odyssey*‡ is distinguished by all the qualities which characterize his annotated reprint of the *Iliad*. The text, given from a careful collation of the best MSS., is copiously illustrated with footnotes, in which philosophical, historical, and archaeological difficulties are carefully and concisely treated. The introduction, comprising two parts, treats (1) of the *Odyssey* amongst the ancients, and (2) of the *Odyssey* in modern times. Under the first heading we find a critical estimate of the various MSS., and of the labours of scholars and commentators, notices of Aristarchus, Zoilus, &c. &c. M. Pierron once more takes the opportunity of protesting against the judgment passed upon Homer by Plato, declaring that his view of the great epic poet is absurd, and that he alone rendered Zoilus possible. M. Pierron's remarks on modern editors are generally stamped with extreme severity. Of course he turns Wolf into ridicule, and makes great fun of the contest between Nauck and the philologists of the Königsberg school. Mr. Paley comes in for his share of abuse; M. Bekker's views on the digamma are eagerly controverted; and Dr. Hayman's edition is minutely discussed in several pages, with more vigour than fairness.

M. Gustave Desnoiresterres is going on perseveringly with his very interesting work on Voltaire; the seventh volume §, published

* *Histoire diplomatique de la guerre franco-allemande*. Par M. Albert Sorel. Paris: Plon.

† *Lettres, journal et documents pour servir à l'histoire du canal de Suez*. Par F. de Lesseps. Paris: Didier.

‡ *L'Odyssee d'Homère, avec des notes, une introduction, etc.* Par Alexis Pierron. Paris and London: L. Hachette & Co.

§ *Voltaire à Genève*. Par Gustave Desnoiresterres. Paris: Didier.

under the title of *Voltaire à Genève*, is now before us, and one more instalment will conclude an excellent piece of biographical research. M. Desnoistères has the merit of selecting judiciously from a mass of documents those which are really worth quoting, and although his sympathies are clearly on the side of the arch-philosopher, he never obscures them upon the reader. He gives his extracts with fairness, and leaves us to draw our conclusions. The residence of Voltaire in Switzerland is not one of the least remarkable episodes in his busy life; if the old metropolis of Calvinism had lost much of its former rigidity, there were still amongst its influential inhabitants many who saw with deep displeasure the chief representative of free thought settled at Geneva. Hence quarrels, bickerings, pamphlets, and counter-pamphlets, in which the ever brilliant wit of Voltaire always won for him the superiority, and obliged even his enemies to laugh against their will. The famous history of what is usually called *la guerre de Genève* occupies, of course, a large place in this amusing volume, where the well-known names of Piron, Bonnet, Haller, Deluc, and Jean de Muller appear repeatedly.

M. Joret remarks in the preface to his volume* that Herder has not yet met with a biographer; he does not attempt himself to supply the want, his only object being to relate so much of the critic's life as is connected with the literary revolution of Germany during the last century. The effects of the Renaissance movement had been felt on the banks of the Rhine almost as much as in Italy and in France; a school of writers had arisen whose highest ambition was to follow in the wake of classical models, and the combined influence of Bodmer and Breitinger reigned supreme when a reaction set in directed by Klopstock, Lessing, and Herder. M. Joret has well discriminated the respective merits of these three writers. Klopstock was the most timid amongst them; the author of *Emilia Galotti* aimed at replacing the imitation of French literature by that of English poets; and it was only Herder who completely broke the fetters under which German art had so long been cramped. The volume before us is divided into three books. M. Joret begins by describing the position of the classical school at the time when Klopstock, Wieland, and Lessing published their first works; he then gives an account of the early life of Herder down to his visit to France and his connexion with Goethe; notices of Kant, Haman, and Winckelmann will also be found in this book, which introduces us to the birth of the German aesthetic school. Finally, we follow Herder to Bückeburg and Darmstadt; we watch the influence of Shakespeare on the new literary outburst, and we see at last the German drama assuming an original character by the production of *Emilia Galotti* and *Goetz von Berlichingen*. M. Joret has evidently mastered his subject, and his volume is an excellent contribution to the study of modern literature.

The question discussed by M. Deloche in his learned volume† is one which has occupied the attention of many historians. In Germany, Eichorn, Grimm, De Savigny, Maurer, and recently M. Georg Waitz; in France, MM. Guérard, Lehuéron, De Petigny, Guizot, and Pardessus, have all written at considerable length upon the true character of the *Trustis*, and the rank held by the *Antrustion* of the king during the Merovingian and Carlovingian dynasties. But, in the first place, as the problem of the *Trustis* was only a small point in the whole history of Teutonic institutions, even the most elaborate disquisitions on the subject failed of completeness; and, further, there has always existed a great difference of opinion as to the meaning of the word *Trustis*, the nature of the institution itself, the terms of admission, the privileges it conferred, and the similarity it bore to the position of the *conviva regis* during the Merovingian sway and the *rassis* of the Carlovingian period. M. Deloche has accordingly examined the whole subject afresh. The first part of his work gives an explanation of the word *Trustis*, our author endeavouring to show that it has had at successive times various meanings, and that the error of most historians has consisted in ascribing to it one permanent signification. The second division of the volume is taken up by the subject of the *Antrustion*. M. Deloche shows that, under the rule of the ancient Salic law, the Franks and the Salians alone were admitted to it; that the conditions of the *Antrustion* were totally different then from those of the *conviva regis*; that with the eighth century, and when the separation of races which constituted the Merovingian society had disappeared, the title of *Antrustion* came to be bestowed not only upon Roman landowners, but even on the freedmen of the king and the *liti*, whose position was very nearly that of slaves; and, finally, the privileges and duties of the *Antrustion* are clearly defined, and the passage from the *Trustis* to the feudal system thoroughly explained. M. Deloche has added to his volume an appendix of valuable notes and a copious index.

Among the scientific works recently published several deserve to be noticed, on account both of their own merit and of the importance of the subjects they treat. M. Schützenberger's volume on *Fermentations*‡ deals chiefly with alcoholic fermentation, which it discusses in an exhaustive manner. As a general rule, M. Schützenberger upholds the theories of M. Pasteur, but on certain points he offers objections which seem to us to have much force.

M. Léon Dumont is already well known by his two essays on *Laughter and on the Sense of the Graceful*, and the volume he now

* *Herder et la renaissance littéraire en Allemagne au XVIII^e siècle.* Par C. Joret. Paris and London: L. Hachette & Co.

† *La Trustis et l'Antrustion royal sous les deux premières races.* Par M. Deloche. Paris: Imprimerie nationale.

‡ *Les fermentations.* Par T. Schützenberger. Paris: Germer-Baillière.

contributes* to M. Germer-Baillière's International Scientific Library will amply repay perusal. The author describes with great minuteness and accuracy the theories of sensation propounded by different philosophers; he then gives a classification of the different sources of emotion, and shows how aesthetics are modified and influenced by the various manifestations of pleasure and pain. M. Dumont's researches are equally valuable whether we consider them as bearing upon abstract metaphysics, or on the relations between metaphysics and physiology on the one side and art on the other.

The *Lettres à une autre inconnue*† hardly deserve a moment's attention, and the only reason why we notice them here is that we wish to protest against the system of puffing worthless productions into notoriety through the exceptional success obtained by other works. The *autre inconnue*, in the first place, is *not* at all, and the *Abitués* of Parisian society could name her without the slightest hesitation; in the next, the few letters contained in this volume are so miserably colourless and feeble that for the sake of Mérimée himself it would have been far better to leave them untouched. M. Blaze de Bury's preface is not much more satisfactory; it gives us no new facts about the author of *Colomba*, but merely repeats what M. Taine had said when he introduced to us the correspondence of the real *inconnue*.

General Faidherbe makes no mystery of his Darwinian sympathies.‡ He explains them at much length in the first chapter of an otherwise interesting work which he has composed on the grammar and language of the Poul tribe, whose habits and civilization he has closely studied. The Pouls came probably from the East. They are settled in Central Africa, where they have acquired much influence since their conversion to Islamism—that is to say, within less than two centuries. It is unnecessary to follow General Faidherbe in his learned disquisition on the political history of the Pouls; suffice it to say, that these people are almost absolute masters over a tract of territory extending from Cape Verde to the Lake Tchad, and comprising a zone of between 80,000 and 90,000 square leagues. This fact alone would be enough to justify the study of the Poul language; but the grammar on which that language is founded offers besides certain phenomena of the most singular description. These are analysed in detail by the learned General. We have in the volume before us not only the necessary rules, but also a set of phrases one hundred in number and a vocabulary. We need not say that the Poul language has no affinity to the Semitic ones. It has borrowed, however, from the Arabic a large number of terms relating to religion, justice, the calendar, &c.

We have to notice another important publication for which we are indebted to M. Legrand§, who has already done so much for the revival of the study of modern Greek literature. It is nothing less than a Byzantine epic poem composed during the tenth century, and describing the exploits of the hero Digénis Akritas. The editor begins his preface by reminding his readers of what has been accomplished within the last half-century towards a better knowledge of modern Greek. Passow's *Populalia carmina*, and Fauriel's *Chants populaires de la Grèce moderne* are the two most noteworthy publications of the kind; the latter especially, for Passow's chronology is often at fault, and his volume is absolutely devoid of method. Amongst the national poems founded upon the struggle between Islamism and Christianity many might be named the heroes of which have almost been transformed into superhuman beings by the enthusiastic gratitude of their countrymen. One of the best among them is the romance here published; it celebrates the exploits, not of an imaginary being, but of a real warrior, a member of the illustrious family of Ducas. Digénis Akritas and his adventures seem to have repeatedly engaged the attention of Greek poets, and around his biography a number of rhapsodies are clustered, forming a kind of cycle such as the Arthurian and the Carlovingian ones in Western Europe. M. Legrand's preface describes every detail connected with the epic now under consideration; it extends to nearly a hundred and fifty pages of small print, and is extremely interesting. The poem itself, so far as it goes, for the end is wanting, comprises 3,182 lines; it is divided into nine books; the French version is printed opposite the Greek original; and the volume ends with notes and a glossary. We hope to take a future opportunity of noticing more fully this valuable literary curiosity.

The admirers of M. Sainte-Beuve are well acquainted with the excellent biographical sketch he has given of the revolutionist Proudhon; never had that remarkable agitator been so thoroughly dissected, and the portrait drawn of him by the *causeur* will not easily be forgotten. Since M. Sainte-Beuve's death, however, fresh materials respecting him have been made available in the shape of a voluminous correspondence, and M. Frédéric Baillie is thus enabled to write another estimate of Proudhon, one of the best articles in the *Bibliothèque universelle* for last July.|| This is an unusually interesting number; M. Naville contributes to it

* *Théorie scientifique de la sensibilité.* Par L. Dumont. Paris: Germer-Baillière.

† *Lettres à une autre inconnue.* Par Prosper Mérimée. Paris: Lévy.

‡ *Essai sur la langue Poule.* Par le général Faidherbe. Paris: Maisonneuve.

§ *Les exploits de Digénis Akritas, épope byzantine du X^e siècle.* Publié pour la première fois par C. Sathas et E. Legrand. Paris: Maisonneuve.

|| *Bibliothèque universelle et Revue suisse.* Juillet 1875. Lausanne: Bridel.

a paper on the Philosophy of Modern Physical Science, and M. Amédée Roget an episode in the life of the reformer Viret.

As we are talking of biographical sketches, let us mention M. de Mazade's gallery of portraits * reprinted from the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. Our author remarks very aptly on the universal incoherence which has taken possession of literary as well as of political and social life, and which is the natural result of democratic notions either exaggerated or falsely understood. It is not from a deficiency of able men that France is now suffering, but from an absolute want of principle.

If we wished to illustrate, by way of contrast, the power of principle, we could not do better than select the life of the Vendean general Stofflet †; it is admirably related by one of his descendants, in a small volume full of curious details, and which is really less a biography than an abridged history of the Royalist campaign. A good map enables us to follow the movements of the contending armies.

Now that the first volume of the illustrated review *L'Art* ‡ is before us, we can judge of its merits better than from the style and appearance of one or two detached instalments. The aim of its conductors is a most praiseworthy one. Their purpose is to combine the *utile* with the *dulce*, and to show that painting, sculpture, and architecture have their scientific merits, as well as the quality of pleasing the eye and satisfying our notions of beauty. For variety of matter, fulness of information, and elegance of style, this first volume deserves the highest praise. It is profusely illustrated with etchings, woodcuts, lithographs, facsimiles, &c.

The light literature of the last month has produced nothing of very great importance. M. Gilbert Augustin Thierry's *Aventure d'une âme en peine* §, published in an attractive form, immediately arrests our notice, and we are *a priori* disposed to receive favourably any work bearing so illustrious a name. We are sorry to say that we have been thoroughly disappointed. The son of M. Amédée Thierry is a writer of considerable talent, but he has placed that talent at the service of the vulgarest sensationalism, and there is not in his novel a single character which interests or pleases. It is meant to be a satire on the *ancien régime*, but no one will be won over to the cause of the Revolution by so grotesque a caricature of a society which could not have lived for fifty years if all the priests and magistrates had been cut out on the patterns drawn by M. Thierry.

M. Charles Buet endeavours to revive historical novels, and his new book || is really, in some respects, a bright exception to the trash which the imitators of Sir Walter Scott and Alexandre Dumas have so liberally inflicted both on France and England. The association known under the name of *Les gentilhommes de la cuiller* was, as all students of modern history are aware, a Catholic society formed in Savoy three hundred years ago, in order to counteract the progress of the Reformation at Geneva. Our praise of M. Buet must, however, be understood as applying only to the vigour with which the characters are drawn, and the clever construction of the plot. His fault consists in the controversial tone he gives to his work; writing from the strongly Catholic point of view, he represents all the Protestants as criminals of the worst dye.

The collection of tales published by M. Lemerre includes now a reprint of M. Léon Gozlan's two best productions. ¶ If you want to realize the full meaning of the well-known proverb, *Il y a fagots et fagots*, read the adventures of Polydore Marasquin, after having closed one of M. Emile Zola's repulsive pictures of contemporary Parisian life.

The second volume of M. Hugo's translations of Shakespeare ** includes the *Taming of the Shrew*, *Romeo and Juliet*, *King John*, and *Richard II*. It does not call for any special remark in this place; the notes are perhaps a little too scanty.

* *Portraits d'histoire morale et politique du temps*. Par M. de Mazade. Paris: Plon.

† *Stofflet et la Vendée*. Par Edmond Stofflet. Paris: Plon.

‡ *L'Art, revue hebdomadaire illustrée*. Paris: Charles Heymann.

§ *L'aventure d'une âme en peine*. Par Gilbert Augustin Thierry. Paris: Didier.

|| *Les gentilhommes de la cuiller*. Par M. Charles Buet. Paris: Bibliothèque Saint-Michel.

¶ *Les émotions de Polydore Marasquin. Histoire de cent-trente femmes*. Par Léon Gozlan. Paris: Lemerre.

** *Oeuvres complètes de W. Shakespeare*. Traduite par François Victor Hugo. Vol. 2. Paris: Lemerre.

NOTICE.

We beg leave to state that we decline to return rejected Communications; and to this rule we can make no exception.

THE UNITED STATES.

The Annual Subscription to the SATURDAY REVIEW, including postage to any part of the United States, is £1 10s. 6d., or \$7 50 gold, and may be forwarded direct to the Publisher, at the Office, 38 Southampton Street, Strand, or to Mr. B. F. STEVENS, American Agency, 17 Henrietta Street, Covent Garden, London. International Money Orders can be sent from any office in the United States, and Subscriptions, payable in advance, may commence at any time.

PARIS.

Copies of the SATURDAY REVIEW may be obtained every Saturday of M. FOTHERINGHAM, 8 Rue Neuve des Capucines.

The SATURDAY REVIEW is duly registered for transmission abroad.

The publication of the SATURDAY REVIEW takes place on Saturday Mornings, in time for the early trains, and copies may be obtained in the Country, through any Newsagent, on the day of publication.

Nearly all the back Numbers of the SATURDAY REVIEW may be obtained through any Bookseller, or of the Publisher, at the Office, 38 Southampton Street, Strand, W.C., to whom all Communications relating to Advertisements should likewise be addressed.

Copies of the SATURDAY REVIEW Bill of Contents will be forwarded every Friday Evening by post, prepaid, to any Newsagent in Town or Country on application to the Publisher.

Now ready, VOLUME XXXIX., bound in cloth, price 16s. Cloth Cases for Binding all the Volumes, price 2s. each. Also, Reading Cases, price 2s. 6d. each. May be had at the Office, or through any Bookseller.

THE SATURDAY REVIEW

OR
POLITICS, LITERATURE, SCIENCE, AND ART.

Price 6d.

CONTENTS OF NO. 1,032, AUGUST 7, 1875:

Ministers at the Mansion House.
Foreign Loans and British Dupes. The O'Connell Centenary.
The Assembly and the Left Centre. Mr. Andrew Johnson.
State of the French Army. Colonel Baker's Case.
Elementary Education in Ireland.

Holiday-Making.
Dr. Döllinger on the Medieval and Modern Empires.
Harvest Prospects. Artisan Cookery at South Kensington.
Stray Thoughts in North-Eastern Churches. The late Municipal Festivities.
Postal Telegraphs. A Pious and Charitable Lottery.
Racing in Sussex.

Joyce's Irish Names of Places.
Last Letters from Egypt. Jaocx's Shakespeare Diversions.
Russian Romance. The Epigrammatists. Protestant Missions in India.
Wriothesley's Chronicle of England under the Tudors.
Loving and Loth. French Literature.

CONTENTS OF NO. 1,031, JULY 31, 1875:

The Government and Mr. Plimsoll—The Labour Laws—The Meeting of the Mayors—Bishop Thirlwall—France—The Debate on Inclosures—South Africa—The Assaults Bill—Foreign Poor Laws.
Bishop Thirlwall as a Historian—Dramatic Conditions—The Archaeological Institute at Canterbury—Dressmaking as a Fine Art—The "Centennial Exposition" —The Queen Anne Craze—Another Muddle—Metropolitan Streets and Roads.
Malleon's Native States of India—Murray's Handbooks for Northumberland—The Life of St. Teresa—The Engineer History of the War of 1870-71—La Roche-rouaudi's Memoirs—Songs of Two Worlds—Norway—The High Mills.

London: Published at 38 SOUTHAMPTON STREET, STRAND, W.C.

ADVERTISEMENTS.

GLOBE THEATRE, Strand.—Mlle. BEATRICE'S COMEDY-DRAMA COMPANY for Twenty-four Nights, commencing Monday, August 16. Sixty years of this Company.
Mlle. BEATRICE gives the honour to announce that she has made arrangements for a limited number of names at the above Theatre, for the production of LOVE AND HONOUR; or, Monsieur Alphonse—Alexandre Dumas' celebrated Comedy-Drama, translated by Campbell Clarke, Esq.

CRYSTAL PALACE.—PICTURE GALLERY, open all the year round, for the Reception and Sale of Pictures by celebrated Artists of the English and Continental Schools. Sold Works are removed immediately.—Apply for particulars to Mr. C. W. WASS, Superintendent of the Gallery.

DORÉ'S GREAT PICTURE OF "CHRIST LEAVING THE PRÆTORIUM", with "Dream of Pilate's Wife," "The Night of the Crucifixion," "La Vigne," "Soldiers of the Cross," "Christian Martyrs," "Gaming Table," &c.—DORÉ GALLERY, 35 New Bond Street. Ten to Six. Admission, 1s.

ST. BARTHOLOMEW'S HOSPITAL and COLLEGE. SCHOLARSHIPS IN SCIENCE.

Two Scholarships in Science have been founded at St. Bartholomew's Hospital: An Open Scholarship of the value of £100, tenable for one year, to be competed for in September. Subjects of Examination—Physics, Chemistry, Botany, Zoology. The Successful Candidate will be required to enter at St. Bartholomew's Hospital.

2. Preliminary Scientific Scholarship of the value of £50, tenable for one year, to be competed for in October next, by Students of the Hospital of less than six months' standing. The Subjects of Examination are identical with those of the Open Scholarship.

For further particulars, application may be made, personally or by letter, to THE WARDEN of the College, St. Bartholomew's Hospital.

MALVERN COLLEGE.

This COLLEGE contains THREE DEPARTMENTS—the CLASSICAL, MODERN, and PREPARATORY LOWER SCHOOL.

The Master's Boarding Houses are within the College Grounds.

Boarding and Tuition under Fourteen, £20; over Fourteen, £20. Non-Shareholders pay an extra fee of £5.

Special advantages for Sons of Clergymen and Home Boarders.

For further information, apply to the Rev. ARTHUR FABER, M.A., Headmaster, late Fellow and Tutor of New College, Oxford.

EAMINGTON COLLEGE comprises Classical, Modern, and Junior Schools.—The NEXT TERM commences September 15.—Apply to the Rev. J. WOOD, M.A., Head-Master; late Fellow of St. John's College, Oxford.

EDUCATION at ZÜRICH.—Mr. F. DE BAUDIUS, formerly Assistant-Master at Wellington College, receives a limited number of PUPILS, and will have Vacancies in October. The House is healthily situated, and the style of living adapted to English habits. Mr. DE BAUDIUS is assisted by competent Masters, and is able to offer, in addition to French and German, and English subjects, a special education in the subjects of Physics, Chemistry, and Mechanical Sciences. Advanced Pupils have the opportunity of attending the Lectures of the Polytechnic School on Engineering, Agriculture, and other branches of Applied Science. Pupils preparing for the Army receive their Mathematical instruction in English.—For terms and references apply to Mr. F. DE BAUDIUS, Englisches Viertel, Hottingen, Zürich, Switzerland.

GROVE HOUSE SCHOOL, TOTTENHAM.—An EXAMINATION for THREE SCHOLARSHIPS, open to Boys under Fourteen, will be held in December. The School course is arranged to suit the London Matriculation* and the Entrance Examination at Trinity College, Cambridge. Credit will be given for general proficiency in Classics, Mathematics, and Modern Languages, or for special excellence in any one of these subjects.—For particulars apply to the HEAD-MASTER.

* Of 50 Pupils who have passed Examinations at the University of London under the new Charter, 31 were placed in the First Division, and 19 took Honours.

A BINGDON SCHOOL, Berks, six miles from Oxford.—This old Foundation, with large New Buildings, Extensive Grounds, and University Scholarships, gives a PUBLIC SCHOOL EDUCATION, Classical or Modern, at a Moderate Cost.—For admission in September, Entrance Scholarships, &c., apply to Rev. E. SUMMERS, Head-Master.

DURHAM HOUSE, FOLKESTONE.—Next Term will begin on September 16. Thirty BOYS prepared for the Public Schools by Rev. A. L. HUSSEY, M.A., Ch. Ch. Oxford.

PANGBOURNE, Berks.—The VICAR (M.A. Oxon.) of a very small Parish near Pangbourne receives TWELVE PUPILS under Fourteen. Resident Tutor. Large house, on high ground. Two Pupils hold Scholarships at Public Schools.—Address, Rev. G. S. E., Post-Office, Reading.

OVERSLADE, near RUGBY.—A First-Class PREPARATORY SCHOOL, under the Rev. G. F. WRIGHT, M.A., late Fellow of Corp. Chr. Coll., Cambridge, and formerly Assistant-Master at Shrewsbury School and Wellington College.

ARMY DIRECT, WOOLWICH, CONTROL, &c.—Rev. Dr. A. HUGHES (Wrang. Camb.), who has passed over 300 for the above Examinations, occasionally has VACANCIES. The best assistance in Sciences, Languages, &c.—Ealing, W.

MORGAN JENKINS, M.A. (Wrangler), assisted by an able Staff of Graduates in First Class Honours (including a Second in First Class of Nat. Sci. Tripos), prepares RESIDENT and NON-RESIDENT PUPILS for Woolwich, Cooper's Hill, and Army Examinations. One year Three out of Four passed for Cooper's Hill, and last August Three out of Four for the Army.—Address, 55 Cornwall Road, Westbourne Park, W.

MAJOR BARNARD, late H.M. 41st Regt., B.A., F.L.S.—receives a few BOYS to educate with his own Children, whose ages range up to Fifteen. The situation is very healthy, and has been found beneficial for Delicate Boys.—Barlow, Lockhampton Hill, Cheltenham.

TWO PUPILS, if earnest workers, would be received in September by Bishop STALEY to share the STUDIES of his SONS in preparation for the University and Competitive Examinations. Provision for German, Drawing, Chemistry. No Village. Station on Midland Line. Terms 150 Guineas.—Croxall Vicarage, near Tamworth.

DELICATE or B A C K W A R D B O Y S.—A GRADUATE (Married) of Trin. Coll., Cam., an old Rugebian, has TWO VACANCIES. He offers Classics, Mathematics, French and German; and every possible care and comfort for Delicate Boys. Shooting, Fishing, and Hunting if desired. Terms, 180 to 200 Guineas.—Address, Rev. H. R. L., Holdgate Rectory, Much Wenlock.

EDUCATION in GERMANY.—YOUNG LADIES or CHILDREN will find a comfortable home and kind attention in the Family of a Medical Practitioner, residing in a healthy situation, and having a good Lady's School. Terms moderate. For particulars reference kindly permitted to H. Williams, Esq., Royal Humane Society, Hyde Park, London; J. Koch, Esq., Pinneberg, Holstein; Miss Claire Bauer, care of Mr. Ladenburg, Inverness Terrace, 105 Kensington Gardens, London, W.

UNIVERSITY DEGREES.—GENTLEMEN desirous of obtaining a DEGREE in Divinity, Arts, Law, Philosophy, Science, Music, Medicine, or Dentistry, should communicate with M.D. C. 49 King Street, Jersey, England.

ARCHDEACON JOHNSON'S SCHOOL, Oakham.—The Endowed Schools Commission having provided a new Scheme for this School, the Trustees will proceed to Elect a HEAD-MASTER, who must be a Graduate of some British University. There is a good Master's House, with accommodation for sixty Boarders. There are also Exhibitions attached to the School and tenable both at the School and at the Universities. The Head-Master's Salary is fixed at 150 Guineas, to which will be added the Gratuity for each School. The charge for Boarding is not to exceed 250 per annum. Full information may be obtained from B. A. ADAM, Esq., Oakham, to whom applications for the Head-Mastership, testimonials, &c., must be sent on or before Tuesday, August 24, 1875.

BREWERY PUPIL.—The PRINCIPALS of a BREWERY in Survey have a VACANCY for the above. All Ales are brewed on the Burton system; and he will have the advantage of learning Book-keeping and the general Management. Premiums awarded. Highest references given and required.—Address, V. V., care of E. Chalk, Esq., Solicitor, 63 Moorgate Street, E.C.

PERSONAL SECURITY WANTED.—A CLERGYMAN wishes to meet with a Gentleman of good position, to join himself and another on a Bond in connexion with Ecclesiastical property—amount 25,000; but the risk is nominal and secured. Will pay £500 for the accommodation.—Address, Rev. J. H., "Ecclesiastical Gazette" Office, Dublin.

BELGRAVE ROAD, SHEPHERD'S BUSH (near to two Stations), half an hour from the City.—TO BE LET, Nos. 17 and 19 ETON VILLAS. Each House contains Dining, Drawing, Breakfast, and five Bedrooms, also Bath Room and two w.c.'s, and the usual Domestic Offices. Both Houses are in excellent condition and have neatly laid-out Gardens. Present Occupants, who are the Owners, are leaving owing to family arrangements.—Apply, as above, between the hours of Twelve and Six, except on Sundays.

FOR SALE, the Property of a Gentleman, a very fine old Bed and Gold Lac Japanned BUREAU, containing Five Large and Six Small Drawers, also Pigeon-holes. The Cabinet above contains Twenty-one Small and Eleven Secret Drawers enclosed by a Pair of Folding-doors with old Silvered Glass Panels, the whole profusely decorated with Birds, Animals, Figures, Flowers, &c. Extreme height, 8 ft. 6 in.; width, 3 ft. 6 in.; depth of Bureau, 2 ft.; depth of Cabinet, 13 in. Ornate Mounts.—To be seen at Mr. DEAN's, Picture Dealer, 39 Southampton Street, Strand, W.C.

HYDROPATHY.—SUDBROOK PARK, Richmond Hill. Physician—Dr. EDWARD LANE, M.A., M.D. Edin. For Invalids and those requiring rest and change. Turkish Baths on the premises. Private entrance to Richmond Park.

MIDLAND RAILWAY.—TOURIST ARRANGEMENTS, 1875. Arrangements for the issue of 1st and 3rd class Tourist Tickets will be in force from May 15 to October 31, 1875. For particulars, see Time Tables and Programmes, issued by the Company. JAMES ALLPORT, General Manager. Derby, May 1875.

HOTELS.

BRIGHTON.—BEDFORD HOTEL.—Facing Sea and Esplanade. Near the West Pier. Central and quiet. Long established. Suites of Rooms. Spacious Coffee-room for Ladies and Gentlemen. Sea-Water Service in the Hotel. ROBERT PARK, Manager.

SOUTHSEA.—PIER HOTEL and QUEEN'S HOTEL.—These favourite First-class Hotels are unsurpassed for comfort, convenience, and position, being near the Beach, Bath-rooms, and Pier. Military Bands twice a day.

MARGATE.—CARLTON HOTEL, facing the Sea. For Adult Boarders only.—Address, Mr. KERR, Carlton Hotel, Margate.

ILFRACOMBE HOTEL, Ilfracombe, North Devon.—Accessible from all parts by Steam and Rail.—See Time Tables. Appointments, Cuisine and Wines perfect, with choice of 250 Rooms. Tariff on application to MANAGER.

E. DENT & CO., 61 Strand, and 34 Royal Exchange, Manufacturers of CHRONOMETERS, WATCHES, CLOCKS, &c. (Catalogues free) to Her Majesty the Queen, H.R.H. the Prince of Wales, and Foreign Sovereigns. Makers of the Great Westminster Clock, and of the New Standard Clock of the Royal Observatory, Greenwich. Sole addresses, 61 Strand, 34 Royal Exchange, and Factory, Savoy Street, London.

RISE IN THE PRICE OF WATER.

TO THE RATEPAYERS OF LONDON.

The New River Company have lately advanced the Water Rate very considerably, and different tenants, it appears, have been treated in different ways, which is unreasonable. The present case is as follows, and the rise is objected to. The Act was passed in June 1852, and I have been a tenant, more or less, the whole time. The Company have hitherto charged as follows:

FOR HOUSE AT DALSTON, £2 6s. A YEAR. THIS IS ALLOWED TO REMAIN THE SAME.

HOUSE, 62 KINGSLAND, RAISED FROM £3 7s. TO £6 1s.

HOUSE, 67 BISHOPSGATE STREET WITHIN, RAISED FROM £3 1s. TO £8 12s.—TOTAL RISE ON THE LAST TWO PREMISES £7 11s. A YEAR, THE CONDITIONS BEING THE SAME.

From inquiries it appears that some have been raised and some not. If a rise was really justifiable, it should have been done uniformly and by proper notices, with some explanation. The principal answer given by the Company's officials is:

DO WE CHARGE YOU MORE THAN THE ACT ALLOWS?

This is only half the question. Every Act has its letter and its spirit. If the Act empowers the Company to charge 4 per cent. on the assessment, it means, in spirit, that the Company shall charge all and everybody alike; that is, in fair relative proportions, and not jump about, rising a little here, a good deal there, and in some cases nothing at all. If a tight shoe is to be put on to one man, put one on to everybody at once, so that they can all be pinched alike and cry out at one time loud enough to make rich Companies hear, and Parliament too.

By next Midsummer Day there will be a year and a half's rate due on 67 Bishopsgate Street Within, resistance having been made the whole of this time.

OBJECTIONS CAN BE ADVANCED AGAINST THE RISE ON SEVERAL GROUNDS.

In the first place, if the old rate was not proper, why go on for twenty-three years? To suppose that the Company didn't know what they were about for the whole of that time is simply foolish. They would not go on charging a losing price for nearly a quarter of a century; it is not likely! If a rise was reasonable, it ought, as before stated, to have been done by proper notices to all the tenants, one as well as another, and an explanation given to show the reason why.

THE ACT ITSELF IS WRONG AND UNFAIR,

and therefore ought to be administered rather in spirit than in letter. To empower the Company to charge for water on the amount of the present assessment is manifestly unjust. Since this Act was passed property has increased in value in the City some hundredfold.

A HOUSE THAT FORMERLY LET FOR £100 A YEAR IS NOW, IN MANY CASES, £300 TO £400, AND NO MORE WATER USED, INDEED LESS.

Therefore, there is no longer any proper relation between rent and the consumption of water. The regulation of the Water Rate by the present crushing and preposterous rentals is most unfair and improper. No one ought to be called upon to pay for that which he does not receive, and in some cases premises are now assessed at £500 a year,

USING LESS WATER THAN A HUMBLE LAUNDRESS AT 6s. OR 7s. A WEEK.

The Act merely states that the rate on such and such a rental shall not exceed three or four per cent. It don't say that the Company must and shall charge four per cent.; indeed, they have been charging about two per cent. ever since the Act has been in existence, which no doubt has paid them preciously well, and now they make a move to capriciously raise the rate up to double. Further, the Act is wrong again in allowing the Company to charge for w.c.'s 8s. each, besides charging four per cent. on the assessment, because the assessment is made on the building as a whole, including the closets. Take away the closets and the building would not be worth the assessment; therefore, to charge four per cent. on the full value of the building and then 8s. a year each for closets,

IS CHARGING A MAN TWICE OVER FOR THE SAME ARTICLE.

The closets help to swell the amount of the assessment, and ought not to be charged for separately, besides the percentage.

Rates, taxes, and rents are now daily increasing to that oppressive extent that something ought to be done.

WATER, AT ALL EVENTS, OUGHT TO BE CHEAP.

THERE OUGHT TO BE EITHER A NEW COMPANY OR A FRESH ACT OF PARLIAMENT SUITABLE TO THE PRESENT TIME.

Plenty of good water is, like the air we breathe, every man's birthright, and no private Company ought to be allowed a monopoly to gain great wealth out of such an all-essential necessity of life as water. The question is—Has not the time arrived when the ratepayers of London, with its teeming millions, ought to take the water supply into their own hands? Surely, in this clever, rich London of ours, there are civil engineers to be found who could give

LONDON A GOOD SUPPLY OF WATER AT HALF THE MONEY;

And, unless some resistance is soon made, the oppressiveness of rates and taxes will become intolerable.

A. TEETGEN, Tea Dealer.

June 9, 1875. Warehouse, 29 Bishopsgate Street Without. 67 Bishopsgate Street Within, and Kingsland.

NOTE.—Since this was written formal notice has been given to stop the supply, so the advanced demand has now under protest been paid.

July 1875.